

Addresses on Current Issues in Higher Education 1951

ADDRESSES OF THE
SIXTH ANNUAL NATIONAL CONFERENCE
ON HIGHER EDUCATION

HELD AT CHICAGO, ILLINOIS

APRIL 2-4, 1951

DEPARTMENT OF HIGHER EDUCATION
NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION OF THE UNITED STATES





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A Department of Higher Education Publication

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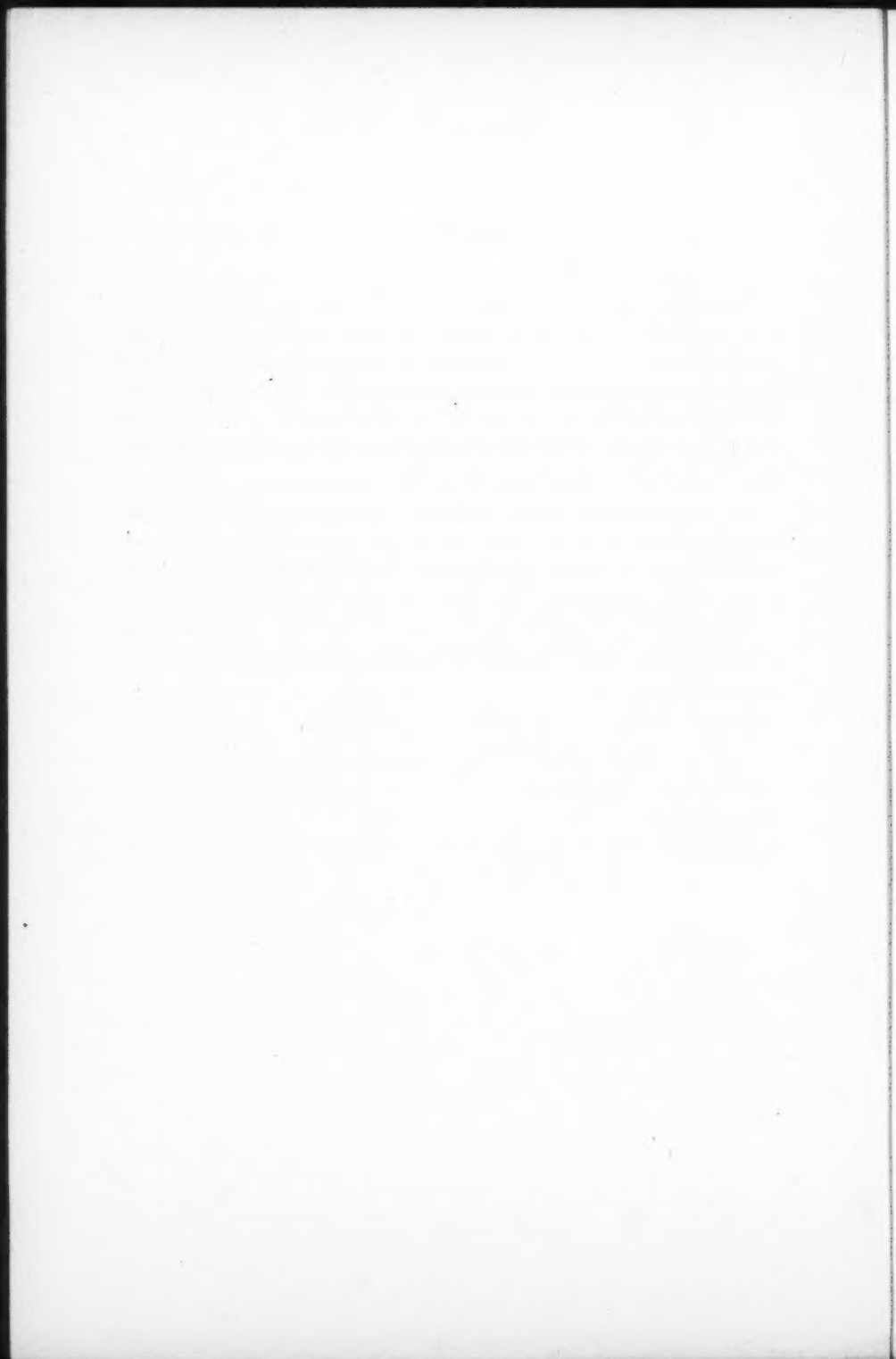
FOREWORD

This volume presents the addresses on current issues in higher education presented at the sixth annual National Conference on Higher Education entitled *Charting the Course for American Higher Education in a Period* held in Chicago, Illinois, April 2-4, 1951. A companion volume of *Partial Mobilization* contains the recorders' reports of the 35 study groups, a summary of the major highlights of the Conference findings, and the resolutions adopted by the Conference.

The Department of Higher Education has published these unusually insightful addresses in the belief that people concerned with solving the many problems of higher education will secure valuable information and material help from them. The range of topics discussed includes many of the perennial problems of higher education and many that have arisen or have become critical because of the present period of uncertainty in our national life.

R. W. McD.

1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W.
Washington, D. C.
September 25, 1951



PART 1. ADDRESSES AT GENERAL SESSIONS

Chapter 1. Study and Research in the Natural Sciences¹

M. H. TRYTTEN

National Research Council

TO discuss appropriately the training of scientists for long-range national security will obviously require the definition of both the concept of long-range and the concept of national security, and in the former case there is much more involved than merely the length of time one has in mind in using the term. There is involved in this concept also the question as to the probable circumstances which may arise and which will influence to a large extent the kind and the nature of the training which needs to be provided. Similarly the word security may carry with it many connotations. One may think of it simply in terms of the need to withstand aggressive action on the part of an unfriendly nation, or one can think of it as a much broader concept of security against the many adverse forces within and without our nation and throughout the world.

There has been a marked reduction in the atmosphere of hysteria so characteristic of the last few months in this nation. The military situation in Korea seems less disturbing. Recent announcements with regard to the build-up of the military establishment seem to promise less drastic withdrawals from the civilian manpower of the nation. There is, therefore, an atmosphere about us more conducive to sober thought over these long-range problems. Sober thinking, however, is not at home in an atmosphere of undue optimism any more than it is in an atmosphere of gloom and hysteria. It is fortunate that we can view these problems now when affairs have assumed much more nearly their proper proportions.

It is not the purpose of this paper to enter into a searching analysis, nor to make predictions on the shape of things to come. There are few of us today who can look into the future with any great confidence in our ability to forecast events. And yet without some background of thought as to what may lie in the future it is obviously impossible to deal with a subject such as the one before us, which clearly involves a program related to the probability of future events.

Without going so far as to prophesy the shape of things to come, it does appear possible to call attention to certain basic facts regarding the world about us which do have their meaning for the future. The first of these is, of course, the growth of communism throughout the world. This movement is approximately 100 years old. During that time it has spread and has been accepted as the ruling philosophy in territories constituting a rather large fraction of the earth's land surface. It has left its disturbing influence in many of the countries which yet cling to their Western orientation. During this time it has not been without change in its manifestations and in the type of government developed in the countries where it is dominant. It is perhaps fair to state, however, that today communism is truly an instrument of imperialist expansion. It is also true that the basic characteristic of this movement is that the individual exists for the benefit of the state. All his personal activities, his allegiances, his very thoughts, must be for the advantage of the state. This is completely contrary and in fact diametrically opposed to the philosophy of the Western world, where the basic characteristic is that the state exists for the individual, and that the state is controlled by the will of the individual expressed through elections. These concepts are so completely opposite that it seems highly unlikely that

¹ An address presented as part of a symposium on "Higher Education and Long-Range National Security" before the opening general session of the sixth annual National Conference on Higher Education, Chicago, Illinois, April 2, 1951.

they can exist together in the same world without conflict. There seems nothing to indicate at the present time that this basic antipathy is receding. While this does not necessarily mean full-scale military combat between the Eastern and Western worlds, it would certainly appear that the resolution of this basic antipathy is not a matter of a few days or a few months, but one which will undoubtedly result in the necessity for a posture of defense on our part far beyond our customary level, for a number of years to come.

It would be unwise, however, to assume that this is the only great movement afoot in the world today which will affect us in the future and require our serious attention. There is abroad in the present world a spirit of unrest and revolution so widespread that few comparable periods of change in the world's history have occurred. Perhaps one would need to go back to the Saracen invasion of Europe, or to the period of the beginning of the Renaissance, to find a parallel with regard to its implications for the future. There are vast areas of the world in which people are ready for change. They are tired of poverty and starvation. Constantly made aware by motion pictures, by media of mass communication, and by the representatives of Western civilization among them that there are in the world areas of prosperity and of a high standard of living, they have gradually lost faith in their own traditional ways and are ready for any desperate attempt to catch up with modern civilization. This is evident in the movements in China, in India, among the Moslem and Arab peoples in the Middle East, in South Africa, and in many other places. These movements can be powerful, and if exploited, can be devastating in their effects.

It is unthinkable, in a world as unsettled as the present one, that the United States will not be involved in the great efforts which will be necessary to help develop in the various corners of the world more stable economies, more stable governments, and more satisfactory ways of living. Part of these efforts must be military and undoubtedly we shall be involved in that aspect. Stability cannot be assured without the exercise of power. There is just as much danger

in a situation where power is absent as there is in a situation where power is too great and uncontrolled. But much more will also be needed in the way of assistance than mere military action. The Point-IV program is obviously designed as a first approach to this problem. Technological assistance alone, however, will not be enough. Unquestionably the time will come when we will need to help in the development of more satisfactory economic, political, and social organizations.

Long-range national security is much more than a matter of the creation and maintenance of a powerful military structure. The training of scientists must be viewed in this larger context. Since this is true, a catalog of the many things that are involved in the training of scientists for long-range national security would be far beyond the compass of a brief presentation such as this must be.

It must be obvious, first of all, that very few of the present scientific activities of the nation are unimportant in a long-range perspective. Most of them have such a direct bearing on security that the likelihood is for an increase rather than a decrease of immediate relevance. This is quite evident in the sharply increased federal budgets in the fields of science most closely associated with military applications and in the applied sciences arising from them. Even in the sciences less related to military weapons there is a direct relationship in the vast majority of cases with the increased needs of a community whose activities are quickened by a mobilization program. Potentially at least, every science is related to the problems of health, agriculture, natural resources, water and its manifestations, conservation, communication, and a long list of other activities, all of which will feel the impact of an increased tempo of events. And in the long run the role of all of the sciences must increase if viewed in terms of the troubled world and its problems. It would be unnecessary and even gratuitous to point out the many relationships which will have to arise between the sciences and the long-range role this nation must play in the future. Suffice it here to say it is inconceivable that this role will be a minor one. It

seems certain to involve every science to a greater or lesser degree.

There are, however, certain general considerations which need to be emphasized as being of particular importance in this total long-range picture. The first of these must always be an adequate emphasis on an effective program of basic research. Much has been said about the need of such a program since World War II. It has frequently been pointed out by leaders in science and by leaders in the field of education and public affairs who are acquainted with the nature of science that this is a matter of paramount concern. It has been pointed out that prior to World War II America imported far more fundamental scientific knowledge than it exported. It has also been pointed out that the great centers of learning throughout the world where this basic research originated have been seriously crippled by war, and therefore the responsibility for keeping the flow of basic research at the necessary level rests now largely on the scientists within our borders. It has also been pointed out that little if any basic research was done in this country during the war. While this may be an exaggeration, it is certainly true that the leading scientists of the nation were employed in an intensive effort to apply information existing at that time to the military problems of the day. For military purposes alone this has meant that the stockpile of basic research information has been seriously depleted. There is a much shorter gap today between the results of fundamental research and their applications.

These things are well known, but what is less well known is that, in spite of widespread discussion of this problem, every trend seems to be inevitably in the direction of further tipping of the balance toward applied research rather than basic research. The existence of large sums of money available from the federal treasury and from the budgets of industry for applied research tends inevitably to direct the stream of talent in that direction. The salaries available in the universities where basic research is most at home are conspicuously below those in government and industry. Facilities are likewise usually much better

and therefore more attractive to scientists in the laboratories dealing with applied research. For long-range national security, therefore, one of the most important needs in the whole of science is a conscious movement, well-supported by adequate funds, to increase the emphasis on fundamental research and to make available the talent of our ablest scientists on this, the very heartland of the continent of science.

The second important consideration is the training of adequate numbers of scientists in the future. There is no need to emphasize to an audience such as this that one cannot have a dynamic and vigorous science in the future, adequate to meet all of our responsibilities, without having a substantial flow of personnel emerging annually from the training institutions. Much has been said of the shortage of scientists at the present time. There is evidence on every hand that this shortage is a reality, and is having the effect of sharply limiting the initiation of projects, not only in basic science but even in the field of military applications of science.

It seems evident that this shortage is more likely to increase than to decrease. Enrollment figures in engineering have been much publicized lately and show that graduating classes in engineering for the next four years will progressively and sharply reduce in numbers. In the sciences, a similar situation is quite likely to occur, particularly at the graduate level. Forty-four per cent of the graduate enrollment in the sciences, a year or two ago, were supported by the Federal Government through veterans' benefits. These benefits are rapidly running out and will undoubtedly have a significant effect on the number of graduate students in our universities. Similarly the prospects of reduced enrollments will undoubtedly result in fewer teaching assistantships as a means of supporting graduate students. Since traditionally in American education few graduate students support their studies from personal funds, the net result seems clearly to indicate a reduction in graduate enrollments in the face of increasing needs for graduate scientists.

These things point to the need for a conscious and consistent national policy with regard to its scientific personnel.

There has been increasing awareness in the minds of most people that there is no more important resource in the United States than the highly trained specialist in the various areas so necessary to our civilization (not only in the field of science), and yet the production of scientific personnel and its utilization have been left largely to chance. For example, up until shortly before World War II, the vast majority of physicists in the nation received their training while being supported by teaching assistantships. The number of teaching assistantships again was determined by the number of sophomore students in premedicine and in engineering. Physicists were, therefore, to a large extent a by-product of the training of engineers and students of the healing arts. They did not arise from any conscious attempt to produce physicists as a national necessity. While this may have worked out fortuitously in the past as a result of the workings of a beneficent fate, the time is long since past when such matters can be left to chance.

The third point I should like to make relates to the role of the United States in world science. The development of science in the United States has been largely conditioned by the interests arising in American university departments, most frequently as a result of immediate environment. To a large extent this development has been centered on interests within the borders of our own country. Occasionally these interests have crossed our borders and have related themselves to foreign lands and foreign problems, but for the most part we have been unconsciously isolationist in our scientific activities. This is an understandable and a most natural phenomenon. If it is now true that America is to come face-to-face with the problem of assisting the rest of the world, it is equally obvious that there will need to be increasing concern with the scientific problems of the rest of the world. By far the greater portion of the world's population with which we can be expected to become concerned in the future lies between the Tropics of Cancer and Capricorn. Our own nation, upon which

our science has been focused, has developed in a more temperate climate, and has been least active in that part of the nation which is closest to the equatorial regions. It seems important that in the future this whole tendency be reversed. There is unquestionably a vast wilderness of problems in agriculture, in geology, in public health, in medicine, in marine biology, entomology, in the control of pests and disease for both plants and animals, and many other problems, each of which constitutes a vast area of scientific development. The results of research in these areas can be of the utmost importance in solving the many problems which give rise to the spirit of unrest which threatens the stability of the world today. Here is a great challenge to American science, not only in the development of outstanding authorities in the United States in the many branches of science which relate to the problems of submerged populations and in their applications to other areas of the world, but also in the training of scientists from these areas who can return home and become the nuclei of indigenous scientific activity. If our own long-range national security rests upon the stability of the world, this is indeed one way of contributing to the security of our own nation over the long pull.

To summarize, I should say that science over the coming years must look to the proper balance of its activities between the immediate and the long-range program so that the solid growth of the roots and trunk of the tree of science be not sacrificed to accelerate the growth of its fruit. Our scientific leadership in the future will depend on our development of a solid core of basic science. That and an adequate program for the selection and training of the necessary number of competent scientists are the prime requisites. One can always in an emergency redirect the scientist from basic research to applied research almost overnight. One cannot reverse this process with equal ease. One can never in an emergency create overnight the basic research information on which applied research depends.

Chapter 2. The Contribution of the Social Sciences¹

CLAUDE E. HAWLEY

United States Office of Education

LET us consider the place of social science in human society today. By social science we mean history, economics, political science, psychology, sociology, anthropology, demography, geography, and frequently statistics, law, and education.

The social sciences are playing an increasingly important role in higher education. Nearly every major college and university now offer degrees in one or more of the social sciences. For example, during recent years approximately 30 per cent of the total degrees awarded went to social-science majors.

Of what use are social scientists? Are they primarily academicians, social philosophers, speculators, "persons telling others how to live and what to do"? Or do they have in addition a practical value, a material use, a measurable contribution to make to human welfare and to the national security today and tomorrow? Concretely, is social science worth as much in draft-deferment terms as engineering, chemistry, and biology? A case has been made for deferring prospective engineers, chemists, and biologists. Can as good an argument be advanced for permitting young men to study economics and political science rather than entering the Army?

Again, are social-science teaching and research worth the investment of public monies and private foundation grants? This is a very crucial question. The overwhelming majority of research money the Federal Government allots to academic institutions is earmarked for subjects like engineering, physics, and chemistry, whereas the social sciences are given very little. There exists today a grave imbalance in the amount of attention and material contributions given to the physical aspects of our culture as

over against its human aspects. Are the social sciences developed enough so that more research grants are likely to produce useful answers to pressing human problems?

As a clue to possible answers, let us examine some of the ways in which social scientists have contributed to the general well-being in recent years, for example in World War II. One of the most frequently mentioned is the process for determining criteria for identifying potentially capable Air Force pilots. The maze of gadget tests designed to measure many different capabilities of young men unquestionably prevented a repetition of the terrible accidents of World War I. Psychologists put their heads together and designed useful techniques for weeding out accident-prone or incompetent young men, however daring and courageous they were.

Sociologists and psychologists are now engaged—some of them aided by federal funds—in trying to discover what makes natural scientists creative, effective, and original. They believe they have some useful suggestions to make to administrators who want to get original inventions in, say, weapons, or housing. In this sense, social science can make natural sciences more useful for long-range national security. Also, social scientists have begun to test some of our long-held intuitive beliefs about what makes good morale, and will undoubtedly prove some, disprove others, and clarify all. One administrator who is organizing research in this area regards himself as being concerned with "epidemiological psychiatry." He believes we may be able to discover enough about group organization to enable us to prevent nervous breakdowns, shell shock, and battle fatigue before they arise.

Broadening men's understanding of each other. Just as this paper on the contribution of the social sciences overlaps the paper on the contribution of the natural sciences on the one hand,

¹ An address presented as part of a symposium on "Higher Education and Long-Range National Security" before the opening general session of the sixth annual National Conference on Higher Education, Chicago, Illinois, April 2, 1951.

so it overlaps a discussion of the contribution of the humanities on the other. By studying such topics as prejudice, bias, folkways, and ethnocentrism, the social anthropologist can help us learn to appreciate the philosopher, the systematic doubter who is sometimes regarded as one of the greatest contributors to the survival of civilization; perhaps anthropologists can even help us learn to doubt intelligently and systematically ourselves. In this connection, it may be noted that the eminent political scientist Harold Lasswell has said that "the role of the social scientists is not to produce answers for the decision-makers, but to complicate the task of the decision-makers by contributing new insights, and thus widening the range of discretion and increasing freedom."²

This leads directly to consideration of one of the greatest goals in social science, that of making men understand each other. It involves our knowing each other. To know each other, we have to learn again to free ourselves to some extent of the custom-induced prejudices and ethnocentric preconceptions about what is "natural" and "inevitable." We have to widen and deepen our knowledge of the nature and variability of human nature; we have to learn to know something about and to respect ways of life different from our own. We have to recognize that different peoples have different but perhaps equally effective ways of living together. Here anthropologists, by developing and teaching knowledge about the lives and cultures of other peoples, may have a profound effect on the improvement of human understanding and the reduction of interpersonal, interracial, and international prejudice and tensions. Intensive studies of community life, such as Charles Booth's *Life and Labor of the People in London*, James West's *Plainville, USA*, W. Lloyd Warner's *Yankee City Series*, Angus Campbell's *Personality and Culture Among St. Thomas Negroes*, Margaret Mead's *Coming of Age in Samoa*, and Gregory Bateson's *Naven*, all shed light on the ways of life of different peoples

and communities. It is only very recently that such scholars have applied this approach to literate groups in Europe and Asia; we now find area studies, with an anthropological orientation, greatly stressed as a consequence of the present international situation. Area studies are now being conducted by more than 60 colleges and universities in the United States. How little information we in the United States have today about such so-called remote areas as Thailand, Afghanistan, Korea, or the Congo! And how much we need it!

One of the most troublous matters in our society is the rift between labor and management. Why does the rift persist at all? What can we tell of its causes? How can we diagnose the disease? Is it possible to forecast strikes and violence? Social scientists have been studying all of these questions and they have come up with answers—answers that have aided materially in the forestalling of crises in our industrial society. *Management and the Worker*, by Messrs. Roethlisberger and Dickson, and the story of Elton Mayo's experiments at the Hawthorne plant of Western Electric have led the way to many a painstaking study of methods by which labor and management can work peacefully toward common goals. The Society for Applied Anthropology and its quarterly journal, *Human Organisation*, report many significant studies in this field.

Communicating and learning. Psychological warfare is another problem to which social scientists have made contributions. The objective of psychological warfare is to reduce the enemy's will to resist. It is also possible that the methods of psychological warfare may make peoples understand each other when other means fail but before war begins; there may be psychological diplomacy. During World War II, I was engaged in psychological-warfare operations against the Japanese. Measuring our results exactly was difficult. This we do know, however: By using the knowledge that social scientists had acquired about our enemy both in Asia and in Europe, we were able to address messages to him in his own language, in his own dialect, consistent with his own folkways and mores, which had considerable effect.

² Appleby, Paul H. "Political Science, The Next Twenty-Five Years." *American Political Science Review*, Vol. XLIV, No. 4, p. 926; December, 1950.

For example, on several occasions Japanese G.I.'s admitted that the news we were giving them was more credible than that received from their own headquarters. I remember particularly well one operation in which we distributed a weekly newspaper in Japanese to Japanese troops in the Philippines. One week's bad weather prevented our flying over the enemy troops, and they did not get their news. Shortly thereafter, several hundreds of these Japanese soldiers surrendered to us and complained bitterly about our failure to tell them what was going on. The work of psychological warriors must be based upon carefully compiled knowledge of the audience to whom the materials are addressed. This is a major task of social scientists.

For example, Nathan Leites' *Operational Code of the Politburo*, a careful study of Russian strategy and policy, is based upon type of psychological analysis which in its rigor and precision would have been impossible 20 years ago. Henry Murray's *Assessment of Men* reports the encouraging results which OSS had with its efforts to develop psychologically and sociologically based techniques of selecting personnel for OSS.

Educators, of course, are familiar with contributions which social scientists have made to the theory of learning. How do people learn? Why do they learn? What social factors make it easy for them to learn from one type of person or in one situation and hard in another? One of the classic studies in labor relations is William Whyte's *Why Waitresses Cry*; although there is no study by the title, "Why Students Cry," educational sociologists know a good deal about the topic.

How can learning—and teaching—techniques be improved? Can we learn from observation of babies, of monkeys, of mice? Such matters have been dealt with systematically by social-science investigators who have been at work for many decades now. Slowly but surely their work has had a profound impact upon educational techniques.

Where is social science going? We have touched very briefly upon some of the contributions that social scientists have made in the past to the welfare of the nation and the world. What does the future hold for social science?

Here are some things social scientists must do: We can and must see to it that information about public affairs is spread as widely as possible so that every citizen of this nation is properly informed as to what his government is doing. Moreover, we should spread that information beyond our national borders to our friends as well as to those who do not know us. How to do this is a complicated problem. It is not enough simply to tell others what we are doing in our own language. We must recognize that there are vast problems of communication of even the simplest ideas due to linguistic and cultural differences among peoples. The potential contributions of psychologists, anthropologists, sociologists, and every other social scientist to research in the field of mass communications can hardly be overestimated. Here such techniques as content analysis can be used. Content analysis has been developed by scholars like Messrs. Lasswell and Lazarsfeld, so that we can now tell who reads or listens to what section of what material, and we can also tell how and why he is impressed by it.

Group dynamics is another field that is being developed by social scientists. An analysis of what happens in conferences and meetings, and what can be made to happen, and how, is of greatest importance in understanding personal interrelationships and the processes of influence.

Continued research in worker-management relations and worker productivity in industry is of tremendous importance in an economy that can thrive only with ever-increasing production. Every effort that the social scientist can make to reduce work stoppages and to increase productivity is bound in the long run to benefit all mankind.

Next to "know thyself," "know thy community" should be an urgent objective for every citizen. How futile it is for a person to try to assume an effective role in his community unless he knows where political, social, and economic influence lies! How impossible it is for a community of any size to be governed democratically unless information is shared about such vital matters among all of the citizens! Slowly but surely social science is pointing the way

toward effective community analyses—analyses designed to reveal to the average citizen what he can effectively achieve in community life. Closely associated with community studies are the so-called area studies, to which I have already referred.

More is known in all the social-science disciplines than is being put to use. Social-science methods lie ready at hand to be employed for dealing with problems affecting our national welfare and military strength. Today, for the first time in human history, we have a reasonably systematic, reasonably valid body of knowledge about the behavior of men and groups. It has been developed largely as a result of the same attitudes of mind which in the 17th Century led to the growth of physical science. This body of knowledge has been systematized almost entirely since 1890, largely since 1915. The result is that social science is now at a point roughly equivalent to that of the physical sciences in 1740, or the biological, organic sciences in 1840.³ We have good reason to expect an age of social-science technology and discovery similar to that which developed in medicine during the lifetime of Louis Pasteur. Many of the effects of these new developments in social science are well known, such as the following: public-opinion polling, the analysis of industrial dissatisfaction by social psychologists, the use of anthropology by administrators concerned with non-European so-

cieties, the research in leadership and responsibility by the Office of Strategic Services, the application of content-analysis to governmental and publishing problems, the invention of psychodrama, the forecasting of population trends, and the development of aptitude tests. These contributions, however, are but a small fraction of what we may expect, once we realize what social science can contribute.

The next step is the deliberate attempt to develop social-science technologies. By technology, we mean that "special intellectual activity to find out what are the practical questions a given law may help to solve, or the scientific laws which may be used to solve a given practical question." Thirty-five years ago there was almost no social-science technology and there were no professional social-science technologists. The development of technologists in such fields as market research shows that we may hope for a development parallel to that which took place in the medical sciences in the latter part of the 19th Century. Medical inventions had from time to time taken place by accident or fortunate chance throughout human history just as social inventions have taken place in the same manner. With Claude Bernard and Louis Pasteur there began the systematic search for needed inventions in the medical sciences, a search which has led to the tremendous growth in public-health techniques with which we are all familiar. We may reasonably look forward to a similar development in the technology and inventions of social-health techniques, a process the end of which no man can now foresee.

³ Dexter, Lewis. "Social Invention and Social Technology." *Journal of Liberal Religion*, 1948.

Chapter 3. The Humanities and Defense¹

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WHEN I speak of the humanities in what follows, I am not specifically referring to certain subject-matters traditionally called humanistic, for it is my belief that the only justification for studying any subject whatsoever is the importance it has for human life. I see no reason why physics or entomology should not be as important in a curriculum as Latin or history. Nor do I wish to exhibit that form of intellectual snobbery which ranks pure science higher than applied science or mathematics higher than political economy. Such hierarchies seem not only superstitious, but downright harmful to civilization. Similarly I shall not waste your time praising the Hundred Best Books or moaning over the decline in general culture. If the Hundred Best Books are really better than any other books, the best way to find that out is by reading them, not by listening to orators talk about them. And if the general level of culture has declined, its fall is due to something over which no individual in this room has any control, and I should like to spend the 20 minutes at my disposal on more profitable topics of discourse.

One can take any subject one pleases, whether it is called humanistic or not, and see that in the history of its development two attitudes toward it have prevailed. One is that which results from ritualization, the other from criticism. Thus in the history of painting, a style is initiated by someone like Giotto, Leonardo, or Caravaggio, a style which, it goes without saying, has its roots in something earlier, and in a short time that style becomes hardened and traditional. Its original purpose is forgotten, its utility overlooked, and it is retained as manuscript writing was retained after the invention of printing. Its pro-

ponents will talk about it as beautiful, sanctified by tradition, unquestionably good in itself. To take but one other example, in physics the old teleological method of Aristotle was perfectly harmonious with the theological notions of the Middle Ages, for if the world were made by a Creator whose mind operated like a perfect human mind, then it was made to accomplish purposes. The correct way of interpreting the movement of physical objects, as well as that of living beings, was teleological. When the traditional theology of the Middle Ages lost its hold on the public imagination, the teleological method became obsolete. Its obsolescence, however, did not impress everyone with equal force and even today there are people who will wonder what purpose is achieved by the indiscriminate slaughter of the just and the unjust when an avalanche overtakes a village or an earthquake eliminates a city. Those of you who have studied the history of culture will find other examples to illustrate this for yourselves.

For reasons which I do not know, the principle of ritualization does not seem to have the same effect on all members of a society. Even in primitive tribes, we are told by anthropologists, there are always a few recalcitrant individuals, those whom Paul Radin once called philosophers. The philosopher in this sense of the word is the person who sits on the outside of the ring about the council fire and asks questions. He is the uncooperative person whom college deans so heartily dislike, His Majesty's loyal opposition, Hans Anderson's child who saw that the Emperor was naked. Though I am frank to admit that I do not know the causes or conditions of his appearance in a society, I do know something of his modes of operation and the benefits which he confers on his fellows.

Every law, whether those invented by man for the control of the tribe or those presumably discovered by natural scientists, has its exceptions. That is known to every child who has been touched by

¹ An address presented as part of a symposium on "Higher Education and Long-Range National Security" before the opening general session of the sixth annual National Conference on Higher Education, Chicago, Illinois, April 2, 1951.

the clemency of a teacher or every student who has actually done any investigation of his own. These exceptions occur for the simple reason that laws, by their very nature, deal with classes of individuals and not with the individuals themselves. In certain fields these deviations from the norm can be to all intents and purposes eliminated by a careful laboratory technique. In others they can be explained away as trivial, which word in use means something too small for one's instruments to measure or too rare to cause a statistician to worry over them. Sometimes they are called by unflattering names, like accidents, chance events, sports, or monsters. They are annoying because they make it impossible to formulate perfect generalizations. Now every once in a while in the history of thought some scientist turned philosopher directs his attention toward these peculiarities of the universe, those wayward facts which do not obey the law, those accidents which seem inexplicable. And usually when that happens a new scientific theory is born. Thus when Buffon, Lamarck, and later Darwin began to wonder about the variations exhibited by members of a species which deprived the species of its uniformity, we had the beginnings of the hypothesis of evolution. When some physicists said that the deviations in the secular perihelion of Mercury were too great to be overlooked, we had the beginnings of the theory of relativity. When the explorers brought back to Europe stories of apparent human beings who were not descended from Adam and whose consciences told them to do things which the European conscience had forbidden, we had the beginnings of cultural anthropology, a science which might have started in the time of Herodotus had it not been for certain authoritarians who deprecated the study of outlandish and hence wicked things.

Even when the scientists paid serious attention to peculiarities, abnormalities, exceptions, and sports, they were still scientists and their primary business was generalization. They could not and should not have been expected to give up the search for general laws, because the knowledge of the way things behave on the whole is without doubt of the greatest importance, not only for pur-

poses of prediction but also for purposes of control. The business of looking for and recording and describing the peculiar was the business of other people, usually called historians or artists. It is true that some historians became so enamored of science that they turned into sociologists, as some novelists—witness Zola—fashioned their novels on genetics. But in general the historian is more interested in, for instance, World War II or Wat Tyler's Rebellion or the international relations of Germany between 1918 and 1939 than in wars, rebellions, and international relations in general. And similarly most novelists are content to leave genetics to the geneticists and describe instead the fortunes of some individual family as intensely and vividly as they can. One has only to compare the paintings of Audubon with the illustrations in a book on ornithology to see this difference in another field. In the one case the bird is depicted in its natural environment, doing something, being watched by one of its enemies, feeding its young; in the other it is seen in a generalized and almost schematized fashion.

The humanists of the Renaissance were men who were interested in human affairs, rather than in natural science, and human affairs at that time were believed to be as simply explicable on the principles of scholastic philosophy as physics or astronomy. If the political writings of men like Sir Thomas Moore or Grotius are considered to be examples of such humanism, one must see in them evidences of a desire to establish general rules for human behavior which would be applicable to wars and commerce, just as their colleagues who were studying the ancient languages were interested in establishing the rules for grammar and prosody and rhetoric and literary perfection. But while they were codifying and generalizing, people were just going about their business writing poems and speaking languages and fighting and making love, as if there were no social scientists to tell them how to do it. It was as if they were telling the humanists that it was the problem of the scientist to describe whatever people did and not the problem of people to conform to what generalizations the humanists had made.

There were several attitudes which were taken toward this curious situation. First, some people blamed the human race for not being more amenable to scientific generalization. Second, some blamed the would-be scientists for being too rigid, as well as too hasty, in their generalizations. Third, some could have pointed out that the situation was no different from that which obtained in any subject-matter and give up praising and blaming. The third attitude was seldom assumed until some years had passed by. Today, it has become more normal, and we realize—or at least try to do so—that to point out and describe variation and peculiarity are just as important as to explain them away.

The men and women nowadays who are engaged in humanistic research are usually identified with those who study philosophy and its branches, the various literatures and languages, and history. That these subjects are more important to humanity than mathematics and physics depends on what is meant by *important*. One thing could be said about them which might give them greater importance and that is that they are what make a civilization civilized rather than barbarous, for they seem to be the things for which the other studies exist. This statement is unfair and needs qualification. When all is said and done, it is the philosophy and poetry and architecture and sculpture of, for instance, the Hellenic world which have survived as dynamic forces and not the mathematics nor physics nor astronomy nor zoology. A man can still read Sophocles even in translation and be deeply moved by some of the passages in his tragedies, whereas if one turns to the physics of Aristotle, one is either amused by his quaintness or charmed by his consistency—when he is consistent. When we are reading Plato, not simply for historical purposes, we are more vitally interested in the *Phaedrus* or the *Symposium* or the dialogues which relate the trial and death of Socrates than we are in the scientific pages of the *Timaeus*. Even when we come to pages which make clearer the differences between these men and us, we still think of their literature and not of their science as their greatest legacy. A lot of nonsense is, I admit, talked

about this, about the eternal values of art and the oneness which we can feel with Homer. But one has only to think of a civilization without the various arts and philosophy, a civilization which would rival the anthill or beehive in its perfection efficiency, to have a nightmare which the thickest compound of repressions could not release.

If one wished to indulge in a bit of sentimentality, one could say that the truths of science become obsolete, outdated, and rejected but that the truth of the arts is everlasting. I personally should hesitate to talk in this fashion because philosophers like to have one meaning for one word and the word *truth* in this context is ambiguous. Nevertheless, it cannot be denied that the drawings in the caves of Les Eyzies or Altamira are just as good drawings as those made in 1951 and that certain scenes in the *Iliad* are just as good poetry as any that has been written since. There is no reason why the everlasting should be any better than the momentary. Superstition is as enduring as truth. The fact is that the arts express the complexity of human nature, the unexpected, the deviant, the original, the personal, even when they most persistently attempt to be traditional, and some of us who spend our time studying them find in them a compensation for the awful regularity of the sciences.

Whether that is so or not I have no way of knowing. One thing, however, is certain: Man seen by a sociologist or an economist or a biologist must perforce be man-in-general and not man as he is in time and space, with all his recalcitrancy, his pathetic resistance to law, his fantastic hopes and ambitions, his perpetual refusal to be discouraged by the failures of his ancestors, his inability to learn from the experience of others, his sense of his own individuality and difference. If a man were to reconcile himself to being what used to be called the economic man, dominated only by his economic wants, a routine would take the place of what we call civilization. Man as he is actually always feels that he can go against his economic interests, can even persuade large groups of his fellows to do likewise. It is in vain that social scientists point to what they think are the general trends, the

waves of the future, the inevitable forces of history; there are always some people who stubbornly say, "But we are different. . . ." and when it comes down to matters of fact, they are. The fact that they are does not in any way contradict the laws, assuming now that the laws are true. The laws can only be true on the whole, true of the group, not of the individual, true of large masses, not of the units which make up those masses. Laws, when carefully phrased whether in physics or in sociology, always include the equivalent of the words, "Other things being equal." Among the things which have to be equal are the individual differences in human beings. The individual isolated from all other things in the universe is a law unto himself; it is only in those respects in which he is not an individual that he exemplifies the law.

My colleagues at The Johns Hopkins University who study literature or history concentrate on individual poets or poems, on individual episodes, and as I read their writings I find that the passion for generalization is happily absent. When they do linguistics they are, of course, as scientific as their subject permits. They do not attempt, unless I have misunderstood them, to erect laws of literary history or even laws of literary excellence. I have heard my colleague, Mr. Spitzer, deliver an *explication de texte* which brought cheers from his auditors. Why? Not because he showed that his text was just like every other text that every other French poet had ever written, but because he brought out its peculiarities, its differences from all other texts, its hidden beauties, its unsuspected meanings.

I could stop at this point, but no good American brought up in the Puritan tradition could stop without pointing a moral. We are in a national situation where millions are being spent daily on studies, the results of which will be weapons. The more deadly the weapons the better. Pure science is tolerated because it is suspected that it may contain implications useful for warfare. Psychology and economics are permitted because it is hoped that the former may teach us how to beguile the enemy successfully into treason or cowardice, the latter because it may teach us how

to capture or destroy the materials vital to the enemy's defense. The historian, the student of language and literature, and especially that human gadfly, the philosopher, are not encouraged. They are not essential to defense. They are merely essential to civilization.

This is not simply grandiloquence. I remember sitting on a hillside in Brittany in the summer of 1944 in the dark talking to a member of the French Resistance. "You philosophers," he said, "see questions where the rest of us see only facts." I have never heard a more penetrating insight into the task of philosophy. The philosopher is the man who sees problems, problems which others do not see, and I think I could sustain the thesis that when progress is made by science, it is made by the scientists asking philosophic questions. A question I have spent years in trying to make clear occurs when one spots deviation. The problem-child is the child who is not described in the books on child psychology; the others are not problems at all. One has only to open the manual to the appropriate page to find out what to do. The problem-event is the event which ought not to be but is. The ability of human beings to waive problems aside as trivial exceeds the power of calculation. There are still people who believe in astrology in spite of the millions of exceptions to the rules which follow from its precepts. There may still be people who believe in the theory of superior races, the intellectual inferiority of women, and the efficacy of corporal punishment, in spite of the fact that such ideas have been refuted over and over again. Without the question-asking philosopher, civilization would be frozen at whatever moment he was sent into exile. He would have his revenge, of course. The frozen civilization would be incapable of meeting any new problems in any field, would be incapable even of seeing their novelty. But what man above the level of the savage wants revenge?

The same would be true if the philosopher's colleagues, the students of history and of the arts, were exiled. One could always, of course, have official poets and official painters who would go through the motions of artistic creation and who would be turning out patriotic

hymns to order and didactic poems and posters technically proficient but repeating the slogans of whatever administration happened to be in power. The routine of the beehive would not prevent the Queen Bee from ordering music which the workers could hum. Both Messrs. Hitler and Stalin have had armies of skilled versifiers and painters and architects, but their works were cut out after a pattern prescribed by the state and not by the artists' sincere insight. The people of such a state would not necessarily be unhappy; men are happy even in the army—some men. There is nothing in conformity to make all men miserable and the few original types who might find such a regime a bit hard could easily be liquidated, as uncooperative professors are sometimes told that they would be happier in some unspecified elsewhere. The task of the artist would be the endless repetition of the norm, and all deviation from the norm would be severely punished. Is that not what has happened in Russia?

Unfortunately man lives in time and as time passes on new and unforeseen occurrences put obstacles in the way of success. A civilization which does not encourage people to adjust themselves to novelty, does not encourage people to look for the accidental which may create a problem, is a civilization which clearly is doomed, not merely doomed to sterility, but doomed to extinction. You, teachers, know how easy it is for knowledge to become stereotyped—you have all used textbooks. What is needed is a kind of teaching which will prevent petrification, ritualization, and will give the premium to the nonconformist who has an eye for the odd, the peculiar, the exception. He must be balanced, to be sure, by the scientist who has an eye for regularities, but as Henry Allen Moe recently said in Baltimore, "It is the lonely thinker, not the administrator, who makes discoveries and the lonely

thinker by definition is the thinker who is not regimented." Ritualization has become natural in the larger universities where if a student says that Chaucer is the father of English poetry, he is considered to have understood Chaucer. But we who have the good fortune to work in smaller universities, unencumbered by platoons of deans, super-deans, and infra-deans, committees on curriculum, accreditation boards, and the need of giving our students 120 points' credit, or whatever the fashionable number now is, are at least given the opportunity to nurture those individuals who can thrive only on freedom. We at least can mix up some philosophy with science, some poetry with our Bunsen burners, and we can still think that a good library is as important as a cyclotron. Even 'we lucky ones, however, are now confronted with the possibility that our luck has come to an end. We are presumably not needed for defense.

Against what are we defending ourselves? If it is the Russians, we can turn into Russians and thus beat them to the goal. We shall then have a world modeled on that of Orwell's 1984. If we are defending ourselves against ignorance, superstition, and cultural death, however, we are just as necessary to defense as the physicist, for only we can defend the physicist. It was that great soldier General Foch who said that the art of war lay in improvisation. The vanquished are usually vanquished by their own paralysis, not by the enemy. The same could be said of civilizations. As soon as it leans in the direction of ritualization, it is safe only so far as the ritual works. Once let the situation change, the ritual will fail and the gift of improvisation will have to be called into play. That gift lies in the hands not of the regimented, the slaves of authority and tradition, but in the hands of the free spirits whom we are doing our utmost to exterminate.

Chapter 4. The Contribution of Junior-College-Level Institutions to National Security¹

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THIS discussion is based on the premise that national security is dependent upon the very institutions which are characteristic of our way of life. The junior college and related institutions are among those which lie deep in the soil of democracy, thus they could scarcely be ignored in any discussion concerning the contribution which higher education should be expected to make in these times.

Two points of clarification are desirable at the outset. One has to do with our definition of the phrase "junior-college-level institutions." For us today, they include the wide range of post-high-school organizations at the collegiate or semicollegiate level which generally offer two years of work and which do not themselves grant the baccalaureate degree. They include also two-year technical institutes. They may include well-defined and sharply separated lower divisions of standard four-year colleges. In the interest of simplicity, the term "junior college" as used in this discussion will be construed to mean all institutions of the type described.

The second point needing clarification is the matter of *why* we should consider the junior college in this discussion. Perhaps no other type of higher institution has gone so far in democratizing post-high-school education as has the junior college. The unlimited opportunities afforded by the 621 junior colleges in the country to more than half a million young people and adults indicate the potential of the junior college in times like these.

Certainly, if national security is to be promoted, if we are to promote it in the most feasible way, if our means of doing so are to be really democratic, we

shall obviously have to rely on existing institutions, and especially those which seem eminently qualified. Let this be clear, however: no plea is made for the junior college merely on the basis of "saving" it in these times. The only basis for this discussion is that the junior college has a place to fill in this emergency. Further, it should be made clear that there is no thought that the junior college is the most important agency in this job. All existing agencies will have to be used, and the junior college simply takes its place along with the others.

At this point, too, it seems desirable that we raise the question as to what is meant by national security. Perhaps we may agree that the term embraces at least two well-defined parts: (1) achievement of a balance of civilian and military power necessary for adequate national protection and (2) development of necessary human resources and attitudes as a long-term goal in the present conflict.

It is to the first of these—achieving a necessary balance of civilian and military power—that we first turn our attention. Presumably, we should deal here with the obvious necessities as we see them in our present emergency. Among them would at least be included the necessary activities for the protection of civilians from attack and of building a military and an industrial power consistent with considered needs, both now and in the future. An analysis of the major tasks ahead of us, insofar as the contribution which educational institutions may make to these goals, lies in three areas: cooperation with the military; the training of people for war-production work; civilian-defense activities.

To what extent can the junior college contribute toward these phases of national security? Let us first consider cooperation with military agencies. Involved here is the whole problem of the nation's plan for the utilization of manpower in military activities. If the pat-

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tern should be similar to that of the last war wherein military agencies utilized certain educational institutions for specialized-training programs, there would be no reason to believe that junior colleges, especially those with housing facilities or those located close to military centers, should not be used to at least as great an extent, if not greater, than was true in World War II. Reference will be made later to some of the facilities which junior colleges have for such programs.

An even more important question with respect to military training lies in the possibility of *other* plans for military induction and training. Even though the Congress may soon take final action on a military plan, it would seem important for those of us in education to emphasize the utilization of existing educational institutions in military-training programs and to stress the possibility of combining military activities and education. Unless educational organizations do take the lead in this respect, the educational function may be performed by other agencies whose primary objective is not education as we know it. Regardless of what the legislation may be at this point, it is important to this discussion to note the plan for national defense which was unanimously adopted at the meeting of the American Association of Junior Colleges in Des Moines, Iowa, in March, 1951.

This recommendation naturally was prior to the recently announced policy of student deferment but it went further than mere deferment. Briefly, it provided for a combination of the military and education in training of young men. It went so far as to suggest that the *Enlisted Reserve Corps* be expanded and adjusted so that basic units of training could be established in any junior college, senior college, or university. The idea and details of such a program might not meet with the full approval of everyone in this audience. On the other hand, there will undoubtedly be general opinion to the effect that all possible should be done to utilize educational organizations and to interrupt to the least extent possible the educational plans of young men.

In the matter of war-production training there is, to be sure, a tremendous

job to be done by many different organizations. Many junior colleges, providing as they do vocational-training programs at all levels, will be indispensable in war training at the local level. Moreover, there is ample reason to believe that specialized college-training programs similar to the old E.S.M.W.T. may well be needed, and that most junior colleges are well equipped to engage directly in such programs. Accordingly, the junior colleges of the country will legislate for the possibility of direct negotiation if such a program is proposed to the Congress.

Undoubtedly, too, there will be demand for many other types of semi-professional workers, such as nurses, laboratory technicians, medical secretaries, and others essential to our national welfare. Cadet-training programs for these workers are already in existence in many junior colleges over the country. The number of such programs could be stepped up tremendously, thus affording another opportunity for the junior colleges of the country to render service in the emergency.

Illustrative of the facilities for and possibilities of training in junior colleges along some of the lines mentioned is the fact that during the four years of the last emergency California junior colleges provided specific emergency training for some 245,455 persons. At the present time, these colleges have such facilities as the following: 79 electronics laboratories, 235 metal-trades shops, 66 wood-trades shops, 46 aeronautics shops, 70 drafting laboratories, 184 business-education laboratories, and 23 practical-nursing laboratories. The California example could be multiplied many fold by what is being done by many junior colleges throughout the remainder of the country. To be sure, not all may have the same facilities, but the possibilities of special training are many and varied.

With respect to civilian-defense activities, no agency is better adapted to meeting such needs than is some type of local institution. Though the job need not necessarily be done by a junior college, in those communities in which such a college exists, it is in a most favorable position for carrying on civilian-defense-training activities. Junior-college ad-

ministrators from over the country have reported on the extent of their activities along these lines. The reports include training programs for wardens; cooperation with the Red Cross and other agencies in first-aid training and in home nursing; training for auxiliary firemen and policemen; courses and lectures for the general public on atomic warfare; and programs relating to emergency housing and mass feeding. In some communities the junior college has taken an active part in the organization of civilian-defense activities and is represented on local area councils on such activities.

These, then, constitute examples of the contribution of the junior college to the national welfare insofar as the achievement of civilian and military power for protection purposes is concerned. The list of possibilities is not exhaustive, nor is it assumed that all junior colleges can do everything mentioned. It is important, however, to note the possibilities and to assume that each community will in its own local situation work out the program that seems best to meet the needs of the particular community.

We turn now to the second phase of national security, to that of developing human resources and attitudes. Of the two phases, this is the longer term and the more nebulous. Certainly, those of us in this audience would agree that there is more to the emergency than immediate protection from the implements of war. We all are fully aware of the conflict between the two basic ways of life and of the apparent effort on the part of those subscribing to communism to inflict it upon other peoples of the world. Whether or not real war is immediately imminent, we still have the basic long-term battle ahead—a battle not to be won by atom bombs and other instruments of war. The conflict in ideologies would indicate that in America we must remain strong from within in more than in a military sense. This could mean many essentials, of which only three are indicated here: (1) Certainly we must see to it that there is allowed to develop a backlog of people with necessary training that will not short-suit us in the years ahead in terms of basic occupational needs. If science

in all its many phases; medicine with its ramifications; engineering with its many facets; teaching with its important contribution—to mention only four areas—are to be allowed to develop to the fullest possible extent, we must see that the disruption of the flow of young men and women into these areas is not abruptly ended now. (2) We must develop into a financially responsible nation. Perhaps at no other time in our history will we be put to a more severe test in the development of a sound economy than we will be over the long years ahead with the prospect of so high a portion of our national income going to military expenditures. The danger of ruinous inflation and of its attending consequences, the possibility of a decrease in standards of living, the further possibility of a breakdown in morale, all indicate the responsibility for sound judgment on the part of all citizens and for the development of an understanding of the economy in which we find ourselves. (3) Perhaps more important than anything else is the development of a sound philosophy and of attitudes and ideals which can and will perpetuate democracy and world understanding. A thorough understanding of the basic conflict between the two ways of life becomes extremely important, not for just a few of our oncoming citizens, but also for all present citizens.

We could so easily find ourselves in a paradoxical situation where we might win on one front and lose on another. We might engage in military conflict and win the battle, yet lose at home by having undermined ourselves in the very essentials of democracy. We might not fight a war soon, yet we might lose in the meantime because of our inability to avoid financial disaster. We might face no conflict for years to come, yet in the meantime completely sell ourselves short by disrupting the necessary educational development in those areas where progress is so totally dependent upon education.

Where does the junior college fit in this picture? Two general considerations should be kept in mind. The first is that the junior college makes it possible for more *young people* to continue an educational program beyond high school. Most community-type junior colleges

either have no or little tuition. They are located close to the homes of potential students. They frequently do not set up specific patterns of academic requirements for admission. Many studies have shown that when these facts are true, a much higher percentage of high-school graduates will avail themselves of further education than is the case when such opportunities are not available. The significance of this fact is obvious. Many students, who for various reasons might never fully equip themselves for important life service, will have the opportunity of getting started. Many of these students will have ambitious and definite plans at the outset, but others will "find themselves" in the junior college and will be awakened to their potentialities. Such students will become potentials for the important professional fields mentioned earlier, and will add greatly to the flow of personnel in these fields.

Aside from the flow of able people into the professions or other types of occupational endeavors, is the important fact that the more people who are able to pursue post-high-school training in institutions such as the junior college, the greater will be the number of people in the country who will have the opportunity of developing the ability to think soundly with respect to such matters as the economy of our country and on our status and role as a nation. Certainly, if staff members in junior colleges mean what they say as they discuss their objectives and make their commitments concerning general education, we must expect that attention to the development of serious, conscientious, and thoughtful citizens will be considerable. Again, the peculiar responsibility of the junior college lies in the great numbers of people whom it will reach and who without it probably would be denied opportunity for

development in the areas which we consider so important.

A second generalization, and one which to a great extent is a *specific* province of the junior college, is that through it many *adults and older youth* will be provided opportunities for continued educational growth. If in 1951 we believe ourselves to be in an emergency, with the probability of its not diminishing soon, and if we believe further that sound and serious thinking on the part of all citizens is important, it is obvious that we cannot be satisfied with attention only to the younger generation. What all of us think and do now is important, and we are reminded of what Mr. Hutchins and other educational leaders have said in recent years regarding the extreme importance of adult education. Perhaps in no other area does the junior college have greater responsibility or are its opportunities more comprehensive than in this field of adult education. Increasingly, the junior college over the country has come to serve adults and increasingly it *must* serve them in the immediate months and years ahead.

We return now to our opening statement, which was to the effect that democratic institutions are inevitably responsible for national security. We have indicated the basic characteristics of the junior college as those of a democratic institution. We have endeavored to indicate its place in meeting both short-term and long-term security needs. It may well be that at no other conference on higher education in the past or in the future will responsibilities rest more heavily on the shoulders of those who represent colleges and universities than is true today. Our responsibilities are mutual. They are to be identified and shared. It is in this spirit that the place of the junior college has been presented.

Chapter 5. The Contribution of Professional Schools¹

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NATIONAL security can be maintained only if (1) our national life is of such quality as to provide satisfactory living for our people and thereby to provide security against internal collapse; (2) we are able to carry out a program of informing the rest of the world about the success of our way of life; and (3) we maintain the necessary military strength to protect ourselves against nations who, by reason of jealousy or desire for power, would seek to destroy us.

The professional colleges contribute basically to all three of these requirements. From the standpoint of internal security, attention must be given to the utilization of our natural resources for the benefit of the people, and attention given to our human resources in terms of promoting health and happiness. In all of these the professional colleges contribute through the three standard activities of all colleges; namely, research, service, and teaching. Such colleges as medicine, nursing, and dentistry find their main contribution in research designed to extend the span of life, and to prevent and alleviate ill health during that span. Dramatic evidence of success in the first item is to be found in the fact that the average life expectancy has increased about 20 years during the first half of the current century. Under the second item such discoveries as penicillin, the sulpha drugs, and improved methods of surgery and diagnosis may be cited as evidence of success in rehabilitating persons who are disabled, and in preventing disabling diseases. All of these results contribute enormously to the productive efficiency as well as to the enjoyment of living of our people.

Along with research naturally goes the teaching of persons in the professions who are able to make use of these re-

search results and the service to practicing physicians, nurses, and dentists as well as to public- and private-health associations. Published materials, conferences and in-service-training programs make these new discoveries known promptly to the public. The cordial co-operation of industry in mass production has operated to reduce prices of new drugs and equipment to a point where they can be available to the masses of our people.

Colleges of engineering, veterinary medicine, and agriculture likewise make important contributions through research and teaching to the sanitation and nutrition aspects of our general health. Part of the success of our health programs rests upon the excellent and highly sanitary supplies of water, milk, and other foods available to our people in a manner which we have come to take as a matter of course. Travelers from America to other countries are almost always dismayed at the lack of such sanitary measures as refrigeration of foods, modern plumbing, and general sanitation.

The technical colleges, colleges of veterinary medicine and agriculture, likewise, make extensive contributions to our welfare and to the improved use of our natural resources and to the development of processes for the creation of new products, both to use such resources and to safeguard against their depletion. It is common knowledge that our people are the best equipped with labor-saving machinery and conveniences for better living of any population in the world's history. Much credit for this probably belongs to the ingenuity of our mass-production industries, but the foundations frequently rest on discoveries made in our colleges and on the skill of the persons trained in them.

It would be a rather hollow achievement if we extended life without at the same time increasing the enjoyment of living, so one notes with satisfaction that this aspect of our national security also receives help from the professional

¹ An address presented as part of a symposium on "Higher Education and Long-Range National Security" before the opening general session of the sixth annual National Conference on Higher Education, Chicago, Illinois, April 2, 1951.

colleges. The fields of literature, music, fine arts, and the drama are among those to which important contributions are made by our professional schools. We may at times feel that television, radio, the movie, and some journalism show very little of the influence of collegiate training, but there are enough important exceptions in terms of educational films, broadcasts, and fiction to make available to those who have the taste a considerable array of worthwhile recreations. Our colleges, likewise, contribute importantly through recreation in physical-education programs to the pleasure of those who find enjoyment in sports, games, and the outdoors generally. Our colleges which have to do with the social sciences, including particularly schools of social administration, psychology, and the like, make continuous contribution to the theory and practice of living agreeably together, and our colleges of commerce and engineering aid us greatly in matters of increased production and better relationships between labor and management.

When we think of a program of informing the rest of the world about our way of life, the first thing that comes to mind is the effort to penetrate the "Iron Curtain" by radio. The contribution of the professional schools to this effort has been in terms of perfecting the instruments, preparing the personnel, and providing the information. There is perhaps no immediate dramatic contribution to which we can point in this respect, but it seems evident that the contributions to all three have been significant over a considerable period of time.

Perhaps the next most promising medium of communication with the rest of the world is the motion picture, and we are certainly not unanimous in believing that the information conveyed by the motion picture has been very reliable, or always the most favorable. We repeatedly hear it said that the citizenry of other countries who gain their impressions of American life from the movies conclude that we are a nation of cowboys, gangsters, and wealthy playboys and playgirls. Unfortunate as this is, the popularity of American films abroad would seem to indicate that people of the world like to see such pic-

tures, and it may be that they are not as unfavorably impressed by them as we are wont to believe. Our professional schools in the fields of dramatics and music, as well as our departments of psychology, can do much to evaluate the situation and in terms of their appraisal to work for modifications of the films.

Less spectacular, but in the long run more significant, contributions from our professional schools in the nature of informing the rest of the world about our way of life come from the exchange of students, exchange of visits by scholars, and dissemination of the results of research in all fields. The Chinese students who came to America under the provisions of the Boxer Indemnity Fund certainly did much to influence Chinese opinion toward the United States. No doubt this has deteriorated tragically in the last few years, but a considerable residue must remain. The professional specialists were educated through the program. The results of the much larger and more widespread Fulbright program are just now beginning to be felt, but there is every reason to believe that they will be of great importance. The values are not limited to the mere education of various nationals to understand our science and technology, important as that is and great as that contribution has proven to be to the welfare of their people. In addition, we have the value gained by inducting capable foreigners into our general way of life as a by-product of our professional training and the general good will which is brought about by our sponsorship of these programs. Certainly in the case of the Boxer Indemnity Fund the Chinese could not help being impressed by the spirit of a nation which would devise that use for the money.

The events of the last ten years have demonstrated fairly adequately the important contributions of our professional colleges to the maintenance of military security. It is obvious that the atomic bomb could never have been developed without the research carried on by our universities, or without the services of the scientists trained in them. In addition to this conspicuous example, there are the thousands of research contracts which have been executed by our pro-

fessional colleges in practically every phase of military enterprise. Land, sea, and air operations are all represented, and any effort to catalog them would not only be too extensive for this talk, but would be unnecessary for this audience. These research efforts are being continued and will no doubt be redoubled. They will probably be expanded to include still further efforts in biological warfare and defense plans against atomic weapons, biological attack, and the whole field of human protection as well as the protection of our material resources.

Any consideration of the contribution of the professional schools to our welfare would be incomplete without mention of the general leadership qualities of the graduates. It is common knowledge that doctors, dentists, engineers, lawyers, and other professional persons are widely chosen for positions on city councils, school boards, and government positions of all sorts. In filling these positions they not only bring their professional competence to bear whenever such competency helps to solve public problems, but they also bring the benefit of trained minds to the solution of non-professional problems. The value of such service at the level of ability and integrity indicated can hardly be overestimated. The years ahead seem destined to bring problems even more dif-

ficult than the past and to pose situations where the value of integrity and unselfish public service will be greater than ever before.

If it appears to you that I have largely been laboring the obvious in the foregoing remarks, I would only remind you that there is danger of complacency merely because we have been getting along well in the past. Heretofore, we have depended upon energetic and resourceful young men to manage in one way or another the acquisition of a professional education. With relatively free opportunity to do so and with much help from educational institutions through public support and endowment, this has worked reasonably well. We have not, however, had any experience with a situation where over a period of years the time of all of our young men was preempted by the government for two or more years, and we cannot assume that this educational handicap will be overcome by the numbers of young men necessary for the staffing of our professions in the future.

If the professional colleges are to continue to make their maximum contribution to national security, the same careful planning will be necessary in assigning young men to educational programs there that is given to the assignment of youth in the military service of their country.

Chapter 6. Military Service and Higher Education ¹

J. KENNETH LITTLE

University of Wisconsin

ONE year ago, as the fifth annual Conference on Higher Education opened, we heard a stimulating keynote address entitled "Education as National Policy." In that message Harold Stoke, then President of Louisiana State University, posed these questions: "Just how far can an educational system, no matter how versatile, be used as the solution to noneducational problems and remain primarily an educational system?"

¹ An address presented before the second General Session of the sixth annual National Conference on Higher Education, Chicago, Illinois, April 2, 1951.

Is an educational system which adds to its purposes that of consciously assisting in the solution of the problem of unemployment, or is utilized as an aid to agriculture, or as a basic resource of national defense, something different from what it has been in the past? Are values so identical and purposes so similar that an educational system describable as 'an instrument of national policy' remains the same as one to which no such description applies? . . . Consider the agonizing problem now faced by our nuclear physicists who must decide whether their scientific

knowledge in the nation's service is scientific knowledge in the service of humanity. . . . I propose bluntly that we, as Americans and particularly we as educators, stop talking about people as 'resources.' Even as a figure of speech I deplore it, for, by definition, a resource is a means to an end. A resource is always of less value than that to which it is devoted. . . . I submit that every nation which has thought of its people as resources has ended by treating them as such."

Less than three months after those words had been spoken, conflict flared in Korea. Once again we were mobilizing our machines, materials, and *men* in defense of those great values upon which our way of life is based, and for which the free peoples of the world unitedly stand. American youth once more had become a prime "resource"—and the highly specialized knowledge and technical skills of men had been placed not merely high on the priority lists—but were being viewed as essential to survival. Today, Congress is debating issues and moving toward decisions which will determine the course of our nation's history, and possibly the fate of humanity. We can hardly escape the haunting fear that we are truly running a race with catastrophe.

Months of see-saw fighting in Korea have passed. Our national mood has changed with our fortunes in battle. We were startled and stunned by the aggression and humiliating reverses in the summer; flushed with optimism and jubilant at early successes in the fall; disappointed and angered by serious setbacks in the winter; almost apathetic and complacent at the fresh successes of the spring. This is the emotional climate in which our country has been trying to gird itself for the test at hand. This is the setting in which educators have been trying to discover and assert their proper role.

Educators quickly sensed the significance of the outbreak of hostilities in Korea. Within a few weeks committees, conferences, councils, and associations—some old, some new—were beginning to weigh the situation and to suggest plans for the mobilization of manpower, the use of educational personnel and plants,

and the preservation of basic human values during the new crisis.

Today Congress wrestles with the problem of writing the legislation which will meet the present danger. What is the situation we face? Briefly, representatives of the Departments of State and Defense have repeatedly told us that our situation is this:

First, we are in a most precarious military situation. We have an unscrupulous enemy who greatly outnumbers us, who is currently better prepared, and who holds the initiative. We permitted our own armed forces to fall apart at the seams following World War II. Our present military strength falls far short of meeting the present danger. We must hurry to become strong enough, quickly enough.

Second, this war is different. The year 1951 is not 1941, and our defense is being composed and played in a different key. In figure of speech, we must be prepared to run and *win* either a 100-yard dash or a cross-country race. We are not mobilizing for an immediate "all-out" war. We are mobilizing to deter an "all-out" war; to fight for our very lives if an "all-out" war should come. To have a chance to deter an "all-out" war, we may have to maintain a strong military posture for five or ten years, and possibly a generation.

Third, our country is entering a new phase of its destiny. The United States has "come of age" in the family of nations. It is assuming leadership and responsibility commensurate with its stature and power. Our country holds humanity's hope for a world in which men can live in dignity, freedom, and peace. We are in the midst of a struggle of "arms and ideas"; and the conflict will be waged upon military, technological, and ideological fronts. A chief element in the successful defense of our way of life lies in the continuous cultivation of a highly intelligent and resourceful people, intellectually free, socially responsible, physically sound, and spiritually strong.

Fourth, our chance to *win* lies not in numbers of men, machines, and materials. It lies in the *superior use of superior men, machines, and materials*. We cannot match our enemy in sheer physical size. We must *outmatch* him

in brains. We shall need a large base of educated, skilled, inventive, and resourceful people behind a thoroughly adequate fighting force—a fighting force for whom we must develop and supply ever-superior weapons and equipment, strategy, and tactics.

The situation demands that every one of us contributes his best and in ways which will make the greatest difference in our favor.

What, then, are the general objectives of our mobilization plans? They are: first, to acquire as quickly as possible an armed strength equal to the present danger; second, to develop the ready capacity to meet the demands of total war if total war should come.

Present emphasis is upon industrial mobilization to provide the machines, weapons, munitions, and materials which are immediately required, and then to develop the productive capacity for a maximum effort if the crisis should deepen. The manpower objective is to build and maintain an armed force "in being" which would be roughly one-third of full strength, and then to build and maintain a large reservoir of active military reserves, and thus become able to field at any moment a prepared armed force of nearly full strength.

A major concern is that we not unwisely overextend our immediate requirements. In the ever-shifting technological front, machines and weapons quickly become obsolete. The mobilization and training of huge forces of men, without their ready use, would be terrifically expensive; it would sap our economic strength, devastate military morale, and enervate our national spirit.

Early in January, 1951, the Armed Services Committees of both the House and Senate received a bill which spelled out the plans for military training and service as developed by the Department of Defense. Briefly, this bill had this double-barreled objective: first, to legislate for a rapid build-up of our armed forces to the announced strength of approximately 3,500,000 men (These men were to come primarily from age groups 19-26. They would be selective-service inductees, plus military careerists, enlistees, reservists, and members of National-Guard units. For this rapid

build-up, Selective Service would be used.); second, to establish in legislation *now* the principle of universal military training.

Universal Military Training and Service, as the name implies, would replace Selective Service as the permanent means of supplying military manpower. Universal Military Training and Service would serve not only to maintain the armed forces to required strength, but to provide an ever-full reservoir of trained men who could be quickly used, if quickly needed. A four-to-six months' period of basic military training would be required regardless of the presence of a need for immediate active military service. If and when the danger subsides, active military service would cease, except for the standing armed force needed, and only military training would be required.

The bill provided that every able-bodied 18-year-old would be obligated for eight years of military training and service; the first 27 consecutive months would be spent in active military training and service. There would be a period of four to six months of basic military training; during this time, the trainees could not be assigned to combat service outside this country. After the basic training period, the trainees would be assigned to active military service where needed for the remainder of their 27 months' term; when released from active service the men would be transferred to reserve components and would be obligated to serve in such units for the remainder of their eight years of military obligation.

The bill has these definite educational provisions: (1) During the next three years, the President would be authorized to remove from active training and service 75,000 persons who had completed their basic military training. These persons, so long as they were satisfactory students, would be permitted to continue their educational studies to completion. They would then be required to complete their 27 months of required military service unless they were to give equal service in the national interest in another capacity. (2) The President would also be authorized to defer from training and service any students or categories of students for such

time as he thinks appropriate. (3) Students in the R.O.T.C., within numbers established by the Department of Defense, would be given deferments until the completion of their studies and officer training. (4) High-school students satisfactorily pursuing their studies would not be inducted before their graduation or their 19th birthday, whichever came first. (5) College students who reached their 18th birthday while attending college would be permitted to complete the academic year before being inducted.

There is special significance to the fact that the size of the armed forces is being pegged at 3,500,000. The answer lies in simple arithmetic. The figures used during the testimony of the Department of Defense before the Armed Services Committees of Congress show that an armed force of 3,400,000 will use practically the entire pool of men between ages 19 and 26, who are available under present selective-service legislation, and who can qualify under the physical and mental standards used by the armed services. If the armed forces must soon be larger than 3,500,000, there is no other choice than to expand the draftable-age groups, draft men with dependents, and recall veterans.

A force of 3,400,000 is near the maximum size that can be continuously maintained without requiring every able-bodied young man to spend more than two years in service. In fact, it may be optimistic to believe that it can be done. During the next several years the number of young men who will reach military age each year is about 1,100,000. Only 800,000 will qualify for military service. Two years of service by each inductee can supply at the most 1,600,000 men. The others must be enlistees, reservists, members of the National Guard, and military careerists. If the armed forces must be kept continuously at a size much larger than 3,400,000, the term of service for each inductee must be extended.

These are governing facts in military manpower. Taken with the changing demands of the military situation, these facts will eventually determine the necessity of drafting 18-year-olds, married men, veterans, men over 26 years of age, or women. They are also the facts

which will set the length of service to be required.

What is the present status of proposed legislation? The Armed Services Committees of the House and Senate have held hearings on the proposed bill. The Senate has passed the bill in amended form. The House of Representatives will soon pass the bill with its own amendments. A joint committee will then try to resolve the differences. We cannot now (April, 1951) predict the exact features which will be written into law but this much seems clear:

First, Congress is reluctant to draft 18-year-old youth. Actual manpower needs may determine the decision. The present guess is that 18-year-olds, or some part of them, will become subject to draft, but made available only under limited conditions to be spelled out in the law.

Second, as the seriousness of the international tension has appeared to subside, the idea of permanent universal military conscription has become more difficult to sell. The Armed Services Committees, however, strongly urge the adoption of universal military training. The viewpoint of the Armed Services Committee is well expressed in the following excerpt from the report of the House Committee describing its proposed amendments to the universal-military-training-and-service act: "The nation now, for the foreseeable future, faces the necessity of maintaining a large standing force. And, paradoxically, this undoubtedly is exactly what the enemies of our nation hope we will do. Every man in uniform on active duty represents a cost to the tax-payers of \$10,000 per year. . . . The only practical, plausible alternative to a large standing force is the creation of a strong, well-trained, adequately equipped, always-available Reserve. . . . This requires the initiation of a universal-military-training program, since a Reserve system is only as strong as the men who compose it. Unless provision is made for constantly feeding into the Reserves recently trained men, the Reserve program would wither and die. . . . The Committee on Armed Services strongly urges the adoption of the proposed universal-military-training system."

Universal military training is not a new idea. Other countries use it, including our enemies. Such a program would be new to the United States. I shall not here debate the merits of universal military training, but surely I sense the heart beat of this nation when I say that the only compelling reason for such a program is that it is vital for the security of all we hold dear.

The present disposition seems to be to adopt universal military training; major issues will probably center around *when*, and *under what circumstances*, the program will be put into effect. A guess is that universal military training, if adopted, will be used as a "stand-by" program to be put into operation when the size of the armed forces has become stabilized, a reduction in the standing force becomes possible, and large numbers of men are no longer needed for active military service.

Third, there is agreement that there should be some provision for the deferment of able students. The President has just announced the plan for student deferment to be used for next year. This plan, often referred to as the Trytten plan, makes students eligible for educational deferment on the basis of specified ranks in their classes, or on demonstrated educational aptitude as measured by specially devised competitive tests. The number of persons to be deferred may be adjusted periodically according to manpower requirements. This scheme operates under the discretionary powers left to the President under both present and proposed legislation. This plan, however, may possibly take the place of the deferment of the 75,000 students annually as provided in the original bill.

Fourth, there is recognition of the desirability of providing financial assistance to students who are eligible for educational deferment but who do not have the financial means to attend college. The Senate bill authorizes the President to provide for payment of such part of the educational costs as the student is unable to defray. The final outcome on this aspect of the legislation, however, is yet uncertain.

Fifth, there is agreement on the principle of civilian control over all phases of the program that are not strictly

military operations, including the proposed program of universal military training.

Sixth, the term of active military service will be lengthened from the present 21 months to a minimum of 24 months.

What has been the part of educators in the shaping of legislation? Since last September many ideas, proposals, and resolutions about mobilization and education have been forwarded to federal officials and agencies and members of Congress. Much of this activity has centered in individuals, committees, councils, and associations presuming to speak for higher education, or parts of higher education. Each proposal had a different flavor. Despite the unwillingness of forces in higher education to speak as one, the fact is, there is strong agreement among educational groups upon the fundamental principles which should underlie military manpower legislation. Study of the many proposals reveal these threads running through each of them.

First, education has a vital role in the national purpose to keep this country internally sound while it makes itself externally strong. In a long struggle of arms and ideas, education cannot be suspended "for the duration."

Second, education desires to, and will, contribute fully to the development of the military strength needed now or in the future.

Third, the obligation to serve in the armed services should be shared by all elements of the population. Students, as such, should not be exempt from this obligation.

Fourth, definite provision should be made for the best possible use of persons who have scientific, technical, and specialized competence, and for the education of a continuously adequate supply of such persons.

Fifth, plans for the use of manpower should take full account of known facts about individual differences in human abilities and should be consistent with American beliefs about the worth of human beings as individuals. The interruption of the normal lives of our youth should be no longer than the security of the nation requires, and should occur, if possible, when it is most

likely to provide the greatest strength to national security and the least interference with personal or social economy.

Sixth, manpower policies and programs should be under civilian control.

Seventh, if persons are to be selected and permitted to postpone or interrupt military service in order to engage in study or research, the persons should be selected for their individual promise of high competence in their special fields, and their pursuit of such studies should not be lost because of lack of personal financial means. Special attention should be given to the plan needed to guarantee the essential training of the persons found to be best qualified.

Eighth, there should be the fullest practicable use of manpower.

It has been heartening to note the intelligent concern and perceptive grasp of the educational aspects of manpower mobilization which have been shown by those in defense agencies and legislative halls who are responsible for developing manpower legislation. Educational counsel has been heeded, and most of the basic principles urged by educators have won support.

What can the schools and colleges now expect for next year? It is folly to predict when the variables are either unknown or uncontrolled. The opening of the fall term is still six months away. Review for yourself the ebb and flow of our military situation and the resulting changes in Congressional sentiment over the past nine months. Can any of you feel confident that you know what the international situation will be in another six months? None of us can "unscrew the inscrutable."

This much can be said. *If* we are not plunged into a situation which requires a larger military establishment than we now project; *if* legislation takes place along the lines now indicated; *if* draft policies develop as now proposed, colleges and universities will suffer much smaller losses in enrollment next fall than previously expected. "Guesstimates" of the experts place 1951 fall male enrollments from ten per cent to 15 per cent below the levels of the present semester. The effect, of course, will vary with the type of school, the proportion of nonveteran men in the stu-

dent body, and the distribution of the students among the several classes. If the emergency continues, the effect may be more severe in 1952 because, after this year, the replenishment of the armed forces must come solely from the age group which annually becomes of military age.

What are the next steps? Perhaps educators should now leave the legislative halls and return to their educational tasks. There is much business to do. If our country should embark upon a national policy which changes the life pattern of all American boys, if college education should be postponed for any large number of our youth, what does this mean for schools and colleges? Should we not try to help our youth recapture the educational time which otherwise they would lose? What are the possibilities for educational advancement while in military training and service? What are sound arrangements and methods by which students may reach their educational goals in less time without being educationally short-changed? Should collegiate-level education be introduced earlier for the most able youth? These are questions which deserve study and answer; aspects of these problems will be discussed at this Conference. Surely, the imagination, ingenuity, and inventiveness which can contrive atomic weapons should not fail when new educational patterns and devices are needed.

There will be no lack of persons to educate. The number of persons outside military service dwarfs the number in the armed forces. The number who are of military age but outside military service is larger than the number of our fighting men. Vital to the defense of our freedoms is an informed, intelligent, and resourceful people—a people who understand the kind of a world we live in; who comprehend the role of our country among the nations of the world; who are disciplined by loyalty to the high ideals of our country. Who should be better prepared than educators to point out and point up the crucial issues which are daily pressing for decision? Who should be better skilled in sifting the central factors from the inconsequential, fact from opinion, knowledge from propaganda?

Certainly we must help interpret to both youth and adults the dangers which are present. We must neither be lulled into deceiving dreams of security nor frightened into actions or policies which gnaw at our inner strength. If we succeed in strengthening those deeper qualities of the spirit among our people, we shall provide the surest defense against the danger signals which Harold Stoke flashed in his keynote address one year ago. An informed, resourceful, and free people will not let themselves become tools of their state. They will not permit their free institutions to be treated as mere resources of government. Ceaseless attention to the central purpose of education—that of building truth-seeking, freedom-loving, God-fearing citizens for this country and the world—will be the cardinal contribution in this struggle of “arms and ideas.”

Finally, I can think of no better summary than came from the lips of General Arthur G. Trudeau of the Army War College, who spoke before a group of us last July, shortly after the outbreak of hostilities in Korea. He said in part: “We must never forget that the blood of Oxford and Cambridge, Eton and Harrow, while no more precious to its owner than any other individual’s, was spilled so generously on the battlefields of France in World War I that England and the Empire never recovered in the next generation or since . . .” “ . . . let us not forget that France has never recovered from the Napoleonic wars, and

the loss of her prime manhood in the Nineteenth Century . . .” “Not only in France and Britain, however, can such conditions arise. The price of war is always the shedding of much of the best blood of the nation. This has been true in our own country where the blood of our best youth has borne a heavy share of the loss. The stouthearted always lead the attack. . . . While the burden of war must be distributed to all elements of the population, we shall never forget that the long-range view requires the protection of some reasonable proportion of our leadership potential for the next decade and generation. . . .” “The military are interested not only in the technical and scientific fields, however. Even with all the great values found therein our cultural development and balance require an accent on the great importance of liberal education, also. A liberal education develops leadership in a very special way. Broad at its base and stimulating to both mind and spirit, it promotes adjustment to the present, but preserves initiative and incites curiosity as to the future.” “. . . the security and advancement of the nation rest on an educated and informed citizenry who understand the basic interests that motivate men, individually or collectively. . . .” “. . . may your contribution toward this end be so great that the vigorous and concerted policies of a well-informed nation, backed by a firm military posture adequate at all times to prevent sudden disaster, will insure the continued greatness and security of our country and reestablish the friendly international relations which we so sincerely desire throughout this wonderful, but dangerous, world.”²

² Trudeau, Arthur G., Brigadier General, USA. “The Viewpoint of the Military.” Paper presented at Saint Louis, Missouri, meeting of NEA Department of Higher Education, July 3, 1950.

Chapter 7. Selective-Service Plans Affecting Student Deferment¹

GEORGE A. IRVIN, *Colonel, USA*

Selective Service System

IT is a privilege to meet with you to discuss certain aspects of Selective-Service-System plans regarding the deferment of college students. I am sorry that General Hershey could not, himself, be with you. He has instructed that I present his regrets and his regards. He did not suggest that I present his "greetings," on the theory, perhaps, that some, if not many, of you might be needlessly disturbed thereby.

The question of student deferment is complex and vexing. Many, if not most, of these vexations and some very real attendant problems are brought about, not because we are considering students, but because we are considering special ways of handling a specific group. They are, in the main, problems which would arise when any single group, be they students, farmers, or hard-rock miners, or any other definable segment of our social body, is singled out for special treatment.

It is not to be expected that any plan affecting such a group will be entirely satisfactory. Within the group itself we may expect to find some who are pleased with and others who are critical of any given plan. When we go beyond the group into the large body of our population which is less intimately concerned with the group's special interests and purposes, we may expect again to encounter a division of opinion.

The reaction to proposals concerning student deferment will inevitably be critically evaluated, within and outside educational circles, in terms of the needs, desires, and viewpoints of the evaluators. Within education itself the thought has been expressed that no student should be deferred while, on the other hand, we have had some expressions of an opinion that all students should be deferred. I assure you that these same viewpoints are far more clearly expressed outside the educational fraternity.

There seems to be quite general agreement that neither of these extremes is either defensible or desirable, for both exclude the factor of selection in terms of the nation's needs, and it is in this area that any program of deferment or of selection for service must finally be resolved.

It may be in order at this point to review briefly the backgrounds of this particular plan.

It will be recalled that the Congress, when it adopted the Selective-Service Act of 1948, declared that "adequate provision for national security requires maximum effort in the fields of scientific research and development, and the fullest possible utilization of the nation's technological, scientific, and other critical manpower resources." In the same piece of legislation the Congress also provided that men found "necessary" in study, research, or other endeavor in the national interest, might be deferred. The Congress directed, further, that any registrant who, being reached for induction, was found to be satisfactorily pursuing a full-time course of instruction at a college, university, or similar institution of higher learning, should have his induction postponed until the end of the academic year.

In the light of these Congressional expressions and discussions, the Director of Selective Service took steps to effect their implementation. His first action was to consult with leaders in education who were responsible for the training of this personnel which had been declared critical and with leaders in industry who would be expected to utilize the services of such personnel upon the completion of training programs.

The immediate result of these consultations was the appointment of several Advisory Committees, one each in the areas of the agricultural and biological sciences, the engineering sciences, the humanities (including linguistics), the healing arts, the physical sciences, and the social sciences. These six committees each considered problems within

¹ An address presented before the third General Session of the sixth annual National Conference on Higher Education, Chicago, Illinois, April 4, 1951.

the area of its designation by first meeting as a committee. Then all committees, meeting as a committee of the whole, discussed individual committee findings, resolved controversial questions, and formulated principles, policies, and operational procedures to be suggested to the Director of Selective Service. The committees met first in the fall of 1948 and in December of that year presented the first consolidated report. The committees then assumed a more-or-less inactive status for a period of several months. This was occasioned by the fact that while small calls for manpower had been laid upon the Selective-Service System during the fall and early winter of 1948, a changing world situation resulted in a suspension of calls from early in 1949 until the occurrence of the Korean incident in the summer of 1950.

Following the reassumption of calls in August of 1950, the committees again became active. Meetings were held and a second report was presented in October of last year, and a third report during the month of December, 1950. The committees' recommendations were generally accepted by the Director of Selective Service and the plan which it is proposed to administer during the ensuing academic school years of 1951 and 1952 is based largely on the committees' recommendations.

The committees felt that any plan for student deferment should be flexible in order that it might be adjusted to any situation which might develop. In times of reduced needs for military manpower, it should permit the deferment of large numbers of college students. Should the situation worsen and make the deferment of lesser numbers necessary, then the plan should provide for rapid and successful adjustment to the new conditions. The committees felt that no attempt should be made, certainly not at this time, to designate those fields of study which might be considered most important in the national interest. This flexibility and this lack of limitation of field of study, together with the committees' recommendation that consideration for deferment be based on criteria which would measure the ability of an individual to absorb college instruction through a test of aptitude to do college work and by performance in college

study as indicated by standing within his class, all have been given recognition in the development of the plan.

As the plan now stands, it contemplates the administration of college aptitude tests to those registrants now in college. The tests which have been prepared and are to be administered by the Educational Testing Service of Princeton, New Jersey, will be given on May 26, June 16, and June 30, 1951. The tests will be given at between 1000 and 1200 centers, generally located on college campuses. Test papers will be scored and the score made on the test by each individual registrant will be sent, by the Educational Testing Service, to the Local Board with which the registrant is registered where it will become a part of his individual file and will be considered by the Local Board as it weighs his classification.

The class standing of the individual registrant will also be used as evidence to support consideration for deferment. In order that the Local Board may have the benefit of this evidence, it will be necessary for the institution attended by registrants to rank, scholastically, the male members of each college year. Regulations, as now proposed, provide that registrants who have had no college experience will enter the freshman class without reference to grades made in high school or to score made on the college aptitude test. For those individuals who are now freshmen but who expect to continue their studies as sophomores, a standing in the upper half of the freshman class will be required for consideration. Registrants to be considered for deferment as juniors must have a standing in the upper two-thirds of the sophomore class, and prospective seniors must have a standing in the upper three-fourths of the junior class. Registrants who expect to enter graduate school must have achieved a required college-aptitude-test score or be in the upper half of the senior class. Graduate students now in school will be considered for continuance in their study programs leading to a degree, provided that school certifies that they are currently meeting all requirements for graduation and that graduation is expected to occur in the normal course of time.

Students enrolled in undergraduate programs which require, normally, more than the usual four years for completion, will be considered as seniors.

It will be noted that the individual registrant may qualify for consideration for deferment on either of two criteria. One, that he attain a designated minimum score on a college aptitude test; two, that he achieve a standing within the specific upper limits of his college class. By dropping the required score and by reducing the factor of class standing it would be possible, under this plan, to defer every registrant in any college. By raising the requirements of score and class standing and coupling them together, thereby making it necessary for the registrant to meet both criteria, the number to be considered for deferment could be reduced to whatever degree the national interest might require. This provides the requirement of flexibility.

This plan does not, in the proposed regulations, specify any particular curriculum or discipline to be followed. All college study, pursued in institutions as defined by the Congress, is currently presumed to be in the national interest. This basic legislation, as well as the proposed regulations as now drawn, empowers the President to defer such categories of students as may, in his estimation, be desirable in the national interest.

A further recommendation of the committees that registrants deferred for college study have their periods of military liability extended by a period equal to that for which they are deferred has not been implemented since existing law does not permit such action. This provision for such action does appear, however, in legislation now pending.

The program is now under way and will be given wide publicity. It is hoped that every effort will be made by those who are interested in the success of this

program, to advise all registrants who are eligible to take the tests, to make early application for assignment to one of the testing centers. Posters announcing the tests will be placed in post offices, on college bulletin boards, and other public places where they may come to the attention of interested registrants. Bulletins of information describing the program and giving full instructions to registrants will be available on college campuses, in all offices of the Selective Service System, and possibly other places.

While it is true that men with a designated class standing may not, next year, require the evidence of an aptitude-test score to make possible their consideration for deferment, the world situation is so fluid and the picture may so change that the two criteria may, of necessity, need to be considered together. For this reason, registrants would be well advised to be prepared with this evidence in the hands of their respective Local Boards.

We believe this plan can and will operate in the best interest of the nation. It will not be an easy plan to implement and administer, but that will be no new experience to Selective Service, for no plan which places compulsion upon only part of our citizenry can ever be administered without problems and without effort. The plan is designed to operate in the interest of the nation and not in the interest of the individual or the institution of higher education. Every action taken, every classification arranged, every induction accomplished, and every deferment granted must be weighed in the scale of the national interest. Your sympathy and support is essential to the end that the nation may, to the greatest possible degree, support and maintain those various activities, military and civilian, which are essential to its survival.

PART 2. ADDRESSES AT GROUP MEETINGS

Chapter 8. Maintaining the Necessary Flow of College-Trained Personnel for Long-Range National Security¹

M. H. TRYTTEN

National Research Council

THIS has been the year of uncertainty and trepidation for higher education. There can be little doubt that never before have students, faculty, and administration all been so concerned for the future of their activities with so little sense of direction. During this trying period one has had a feeling that many educators themselves have not only been pessimistic over the future but have even wondered seriously if higher education was to be considered expendable.

There is in this situation a high content of tragic irony. Of all the factors contributing to our present standard of living, our high level of democratic government, and our powerful position in the world, no factor has been so important as the great system of higher education in our nation. Yet even we who are so close to the colleges sometimes fail to realize to the full their role in American life. It is important now that we do think about this and that somehow we contribute to a better understanding by the American people of what higher education means to them even though they did not attend college nor expect their children to do so. Every person in this land has a stake in higher education. Every person in the land can suffer severely if higher education suffers severely.

It seems incontrovertible that our civilization has literally been fashioned

by the products of our schools and colleges. We hear much, for example, of the claim that our great productive capacity and our high standard of living are the result of our free enterprise system or our genius for organization and for business. I am sure we would grant the importance of these factors. But let us ask how much of our industrial establishment would have existed without the thousands of engineers pouring into industry each year out of our schools of engineering. These highly selected, highly trained young graduates, aware of the latest developments in technology, have been a great force which has driven industry onward to greater and greater achievements.

How much of our modern technology would have existed without the constant stream of scientists into our laboratories to subdue even greater areas of the unknown and to open them up to the colonization of applied science and industry? What would have been the state of industry without the flow from our colleges of mining engineers and geologists to insure our supply of raw materials? These same questions could be asked about practically every field related to the curricula of higher-education institutions. In the field of public health and the healing arts we have available the highest standards of medical care the world has ever known and the effect upon the death rate of the population has been spectacular. This whole development has been the direct result of the activities of the graduates of our universities. We enjoy the most spectacular agricultural production that has ever been known, resulting from the activities of agricultural colleges and the researches of scientists in university and government laboratories.

The role of the college in the non-technical areas of the curriculum has been equally determinative of the nature

¹ An address presented before Groups 1A and 1B of the sixth annual National Conference on Higher Education, Chicago, Illinois, April 2, 1951. Chairmen of the groups were C. E. Deakins, Illinois Institute of Technology, and C. Scott Porter, Amherst College; consultants were Helen Wood, United States Department of Labor, and Enock C. Dyrness, Wheaton College; recorders were Charles E. Atkinson, Kent State University, and Lacey A. Eastburn, Arizona State College; and consultant on public relations was Marvin W. Topping, American College Public Relations Association.

and extent of development of our civilization. In the field of jurisprudence, of education, in our economic and political system, and in the many fields of cultural development, the creative efforts of highly trained specialists from our higher-education institutions have been by far the most important factors.

The significance of these remarks for the present consideration is that we must now realize that we have created a civilization of vast complexity. This whole structure of ideas, habits, and activities which we call our modern civilization is an integrated pattern held together in functioning because of the specialized knowledge and training of great numbers of people who have had and must have long training, most of it available only through formalized training in an academic curriculum. To keep this system functioning it is not only necessary to have these specialists but it is also necessary to have a constant stream of newly trained personnel flowing into the system to keep it vigorous and to provide for its continuity. Most of these activities, by their very organization, require this constant flow, for training is not finished at the end of the academic phase. In most of the complex activities today training goes on for many years on the job. Personnel flows through recognized patterns of advanced training and of promotion and increasing responsibilities. Any stoppage of this flow of personnel has its impact almost immediately and its effect can be felt for years. Industry, for example, even after the many years that have elapsed since the depression of the early 30's, feels keenly the fact that during those years inadequate numbers of persons were brought into the organization. Many of the representatives of industry have spoken of the "soft spot" in their organizations resulting from the lack of persons who should have been brought in at that time. Similarly, the most serious shortage of personnel in the sciences and engineering at the present time is for persons with five to ten years of experience resulting from the fact that during the war years from 1941 to 1945 the inflow was seriously reduced. These things indicate that the activities of our civilization are living, growing, organic activities. The effect on them

of stopping the inflow of personnel with adequate training is felt like the effect on a tree from whose roots the water has been drained away.

The second fact which seems important is that educational institutions are organic, living organizations. They, too, are sensitive to sudden changes in activity. One cannot shut off the activities of a college or university as one would shut down some of the generators in a power plant when the load reduces, only to start them up again when the load returns to its normal level. The disruptive effects of sudden fluctuations in college attendance on the finances of the institutions, on their ability to hold and develop faculties, on their relationships with their communities and with their clientele are such that it takes years to return an institution to its full vigor when the disruptive effects have passed. Many administrators in colleges and universities found that even after five or six years following the late war they had only begun to rebuild successfully many of the departments in their institutions.

These considerations seem to point rather clearly to two major considerations. The first is that the maintenance of a flow of personnel through the colleges is a genuine necessity arising from the present nature of our civilization. It is important for the long-range integrity of our civilization that this fact be recognized fully in any manpower planning which arises of necessity out of this or any other emergency.

Second is the question of whether, in meeting this need for maintaining a flow of personnel, the problem should be considered from the point of view of a possible long-continuing high level of partial mobilization only, or whether one should consider the possibility of a short all-out emergency. To me this question has never seemed of fundamental importance. The nature of the present world situation, now that the immediate hysteria of the Korean situation has somewhat subsided, is becoming somewhat clearer. At any rate, there appears to be an approach to unanimity in the minds of those whose business it is to think about these matters in the government.

The major characteristics of the present situation seem to be two: first, that there is no likelihood of an amicable understanding between the two great centers of power in the world at the present time; second, the great movements of unrest and revolution seem so deep-seated that we must contemplate a period of many years during which time we must expect to maintain a high degree of military preparedness, as well as a very active program of international cooperation with many nations in the interest of helping them develop their own better political and economic systems. This seems to indicate clearly that there will for many years to come be a necessity for many young men to spend a portion of their lives in military service. The possibility during these years of increased tension requiring much larger military forces, but even yet short of all-out war, must be considered. The periphery of the "Iron Curtain" is large and the number of trouble spots which may require greater or less military supervision by the United Nations is also great. If, at some future time, these tensions result in full-scale combat, it is still true that such a conflict will have its termination. At the end of that time the problems remaining for the world to settle will be greater, not less, and will require the maximum we are able to produce of highly trained personnel in many fields of specialization. It would seem disastrous even to suggest that in a period of full-scale combat we can entirely stop our training activities, for to do so would be to concede that the cause of eventual world stability was lost. The facts of the present situation seem to indicate the need for a program of college training which must recognize two facts. The first is that the need for manpower makes it impossible not to interfere with college enrollments. The second is that we must maintain a flow of personnel in training, the size of that flow to be adjusted as best we can between the needs for military manpower and the needs for trained personnel to maintain our civilization and its defense.

This leads immediately to the question of how large this flow should be. We are peculiarly unready for this kind of problem. To the best of my knowledge,

there has been very little attention paid to this problem in the past. We have been content to depend on the spontaneous development of higher education in this country growing out of the public consciousness of the importance of it. Higher education in this country has been supported because of the desire of the American people to create for their children the best of opportunities. Seldom has it been approached from the point of view of supplying a recognized demand by our civilization for specialists. Only since the last war has there been much attempt to approach this problem in terms of the role of specialized personnel as a national resource. Even the methodology of determining the aggregate needs of our civilization for specialized personnel does not exist. There are, of course, at present certain developments along this line. The Ford Foundation is supporting a project which may throw considerable light on this subject. The Associated Research Councils have under way a project of a similar nature, but relating more definitely to the fields in which advanced training is essential. There are at present few indices that can be used as a measure of the needs of our civilization. One is forced to depend on an extrapolation of the rates of training over the past decades as an indication of what future needs may be. These extrapolations, however, need to be modified by significant effects which may indicate an increase or decrease in demand. For example, in the fields of science and engineering at the present time, in view of the rapid increase in the importance of technology in military affairs, and in view of the central role of technology in the Point-IV program, it seems perfectly clear that the demand for scientists and engineers is greater than the extrapolation of prewar tendencies would indicate. This is, of course, substantiated by the vast increases in budgets for research, development, and production in the fields of technology, and also by the severe shortages of personnel in these fields.

These considerations also raise the question as to how, if one must reduce the student population, selections may be made. It seems clear that there are essentially two possibilities at the present time. One method of procedure

would be to select those fields of obvious shortage in which all who meet admission standards should be permitted to enter and continue in training in order to meet the demands of national security. This is the pattern of World War II with its essential fields as the basis for the deferment of college students. This pattern of essential fields, however, appears to be wholly out of place in the present situation. There is some doubt that even in an all-out emergency this would be wise. Certainly in the long-range emergency the effect on any such approach would be to channel personnel into certain fields at the expense of others and to distort the curriculum most drastically. The long-range effects of such a program on our civilization would be serious. It would be ironic if, in combatting an ideology based on dialectic materialism, we were to permit training only in those courses in universities which conform to a pattern of dialectic materialism.

The only other apparent way at this time to go about the business of selecting students for training is to base it on a principle of selection of those students whose aptitude and whose ability to learn have been demonstrated. It appears desirable to make this selection by a process which can be adjusted in terms of the proper balance at the moment between needs for military manpower and for college-trained manpower. It seems desirable also that as this adjustment is made and as the flow is reduced to provide more men for the military service, the probable productivity of the remainder, man for man, is increased. These things all indicate a program of selection based on competitive factors related to the problem of achievement.

At present the measures of probable productivity that seem to have most validity are those which are based on actual performance in the classroom, and on demonstrated aptitude as indicated by appropriate tests. They are the measures which the Federal Government has now adopted. Deferments are to be based on either of two criteria. One of these is the criterion of aptitude as determined by a nationwide test to be administered once to each person seeking deferment for college training.

The other is the criterion of rank in class. Both of these criteria are adjustable and subject to change as the balance changes between military manpower needs and the needs of the economy for trained personnel. A liberal policy has been established with regard to graduate study and with regard to the fields of study which are to be considered a basis for deferment.

It would be too much to expect that this program will not be subject to much criticism. The principle of equality of sacrifice is dear to the American heart. We all, I believe, would like to subscribe to it in its fullest sense. It will be hard to make the American public understand that this principle has collided head on with the reality of technological civilization with its insistent demand for highly trained personnel. It will be hard for the public to understand that you cannot have your cake and eat it too.

I would like to emphasize this public-relations problem as a fundamental necessity for the immediate future. There must be more general understanding of the role of the colleges and the role of their graduates in our civilization and its defense. It is not an easy job nor is it a short one. It is a problem of education and if we are not successful in this job, the result may be tragic for our civilization and, consequently, for our colleges.

There is some uncertainty about the numbers of college students who will be deferred under the present program, because of the difficulty of predicting the number who can pass the qualifying test. The number, if it is adequate for our needs, will quite probably be large enough to cause criticism. It is difficult to forecast the number of students needed, for we have no good way to forecast personnel needs. We need quantitative information based on clear and tenable assumptions as to future activity and developed from realistic measures. The Bureau of Labor Statistics has issued one prediction for the technical fields. Unless this same thing can be done for other fields, it will be difficult to secure deferments for the needed flow of students.

The Hershey Committees have held out strongly for a deferment program

which does not discriminate among the various fields of the curriculum. Their point of view is that in a long-range emergency, the deliberate selection of certain fields of learning as nonessential would unquestionably lead to reduced enrollments in those branches and to the break-up of faculties in those curricula. Over the long pull their faculties and their subjects would begin to atrophy, and even if the emergency should disappear it might and probably would take years to rebuild this branch of our learning. We would, in fact, probably never rebuild it completely. The long-range effect on our civilization would be profound.

If we are to maintain this point of view, it must be supported by real documentation. Some day pointed questions will be asked as to why we need in our curricula such luxuries as philosophy, the humanities, and the fine arts. Who can demonstrate that history is essential? You and I would not need to have these things defended to us. I am not sure, however, that I could convince a legislative committee of their absolute necessity.

This is important, for it goes to the very root of the support of the liberal-arts college. Someone has to defend this concept pretty soon. I foresee that the principle will first be in jeopardy in the graduate schools, then in the undergraduate schools. I am not sure that the way in which some of these subjects are taught and the kinds of research we now carry on in these areas will be easy to defend. The challenge must be accepted by some one. Perhaps in the documentation of the case for the humanities and other fields a realistic appraisal of the value of these subjects as now taught may lead to a salutary

type of self-examination. It may be important in other fields as well.

Finally, I should like to make one other point. The R.O.T.C. programs in the colleges have been considered by many as providing an adequate flow of students through the colleges. These people are content to increase their size and depend on them for our college-trained personnel. I think it will be important to analyze this situation to determine how much these programs will contribute to the needed flow of personnel with advanced training. Obviously their graduates will not contribute to the nonmilitary activities of our country until after they have served their required period of service after graduating from college. This will be two or three years, under present law. Thereafter, they will be free to enter upon a career in our society except for the hazard of recall to active duty. As the years go by, this will be a more important source of personnel for our economy. The magnitude of this flow must be a consideration.

These are some of the considerations entering into this problem. There are others which may assume more or less importance as the national and international situation changes. The present emergency has done one thing at least. It has taught us that we need to develop the techniques and sources of information to match the complex demands of a complex society and its defense areas for specialized personnel with other manpower needs, for the supply of manpower is indeed short. We need to learn to handle this problem with care and sympathy for the decisions that are made can be devastating in their effect on our activities and institutions if they are wrong.

Chapter 9. Counseling the Individual Student During This Period of Uncertainty¹

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ANY person who has worked with college students during the past six months knows something about the problems which they have faced and the effect of world conditions on young men and women. Modern psychologists and sociologists teach us that we must consider the background or "setting" of an individual or group in order adequately to understand the nature of people's problems. We must study the internal and external forces and the personal and group dynamics which make individuals and groups behave in certain ways.

THE PROBLEM

When UN Forces were put in motion in Korea in June, 1950, most college students were alarmed at the prospect of the possibility of World War III, but they were inspired, to some extent, by the likelihood that a World Police Force might stem the tide of aggression and the United Nations organization might become effective. As the days, weeks, and months dragged by—measured by defeats, retreats, and daily discouragement—young people became disheartened. Like their parents, these young people listened to newscasts and read newspapers avidly. What they heard and read was enough to develop deep anxiety in the strongest hearts and minds.

After months of conflict abroad and confusion at home, we seemed to be making real progress and were "breathing easier" when Red China's legions came to the rescue of the North Koreans

and our flight to the South began. All Americans agonized as brave Marines fought their way back to Hungnam from the Reservoir. All of us will never forget that this was coming to a climax as fall quarter examinations and the Christmas season were drawing near. Thousands of young men and women sat around discussing the draft and the desirability of quitting college and enlisting. As it became evident that only "upper-half" college students could hope for a 2-A classification, large numbers of men became so panicky that they swamped the Navy and Air Force recruiting offices. During the Christmas holidays parents went through a torment of indecision as they tried to help their sons to decide whether to "finish the year or to enlist now."

Because of confusion, frustration, threat, and anxiety, the grades of men who remained in college dropped. Stealing and other antisocial manifestations of behavior increased. The number of discipline cases shot up and negative attitudes could be seen or heard everywhere. Many students lost interest in otherwise fascinating activities; some sat in taverns and beer halls and tried to drown their sorrows. Students spent much time in talking about military occupations and the chance of "getting what you want if you enlist"—as compared to doing something you do not like if you are drafted. The generally accepted notion that "the crisis may last for from ten to 50 years" caused many young men to talk about making a career of military life.

Rumors were circulated to the effect that so many men were being drafted or had enlisted that certain fraternities would "close their doors next year." The hysteria and panic gripped the young women and made many of them hasten plans to marry or to cancel them altogether. Some considered quitting school to take jobs. Some worried about the possibility of being drafted and con-

¹ An address presented before Group 2 of the sixth annual National Conference on Higher Education, Chicago, Illinois, April 2, 1951. Chairman of the group was Ruth C. Wright, City College of the City of New York; consultants were Ralph Berdie, University of Minnesota, and T. W. Steen, Southern Missionary College; recorder was Theron B. Maxson, Whitworth College; and consultant on public relations was J. H. Mattox, Jr., Louisiana State University.

sidered joining the services prior to that event. While college faculties and administrations strove to reinstate reason, through convocations, conferences, and personal persuasion, magazines like LOOK, February 13, 1951, devoted a page to "Chum, You're Gonna Go—So Take Your Pick."

Sigmund Freud pointed out, many years ago, that an anxiety state is caused by unsolved situations. Mr. Pennington and Mr. Berg² described how the anxiety state is characterized by apprehension, fear, headache, inability to concentrate, tension, irritability, and restlessness. Countless studies have been made of the effect of threat on human minds and bodies. The paralyzing effects of frustration are well known.

Not all college students are suffering from the effects of threat and frustration and not all are in an anxiety state. Large numbers of students are well adjusted, have accepted the situation, and are prepared to do whatever is required of them. Many who are now very unsettled and uncertain might be helped to make a better adjustment, however. Most people are aware of the effect of "mob psychology" on otherwise sane and well-balanced people. All of us who are engaged in educational work could well afford to study the ideas of Mr. Lewin, Mr. Cartwright, and other contributors to the field of group dynamics. The ideas about personal dynamics, which are being explored by workers in the field of clinical psychology, are helpful too.

SOME SUGGESTIONS FOR SOLUTIONS

After observing the deterioration in student morale which occurred during the months of October, November, and December, 1950, members of the staff of the Division of Student Personnel at the University of Colorado invited a group of deans of various schools and colleges of the University to meet with them to discuss what might be done to analyze and evaluate the situation and to take steps to improve it. It was decided to ask a committee to study this problem. One week later this group

presented the following: *Report of committee appointed February 9, 1951, to study problem of "How Can the University Meet the Present Crisis in Student Morale?"*

The report of your committee is stated in very general terms due to the complexities of the problem and the short amount of time since appointment of the committee. Some of the facts are fairly obvious to all of you. They are mentioned in the report to give a background for understanding the basic problem. The committee established the following facts about the problem:

1. Students and faculty alike are experiencing much uncertainty about national and international problems. There is much confusion and anxiety as to where each individual now fits into the present scheme of things, and what plans can be made for the future. This situation makes it most difficult for many to do a satisfactory job.

2. Faculty and student body need more information about various military programs. Young men, facing service, need help in making choices in terms of individual interest and preparation. Students feel a need for something more than basic facts about the draft. The military draft is only one of the factors contributing to the situation described in 1 above.

3. Need exists now for help in adjusting to the emergency which is so much a part of the age in which we live. The basic problem of the adjustment already apparent is worsened by the present international, national, and personal confusion. It is to this basic problem of adjustment, in these uncertain times, that we should direct our attention.

4. The handling of this basic problem of insecurity and anxiety on such a large scale is a tremendous undertaking and one that requires people trained in psychotherapy in addition to knowing the basic facts about the various military programs as they affect students.

Basic aims of this group working with the problem of student morale in the present crisis were stated as follows: (1) to help students develop a mature attitude in the present crisis; (2) to help relieve anxiety and tension that hinder the achieving of a mature approach to problems; (3) to help students accept the fact that times are confusing and disturbing and the job at hand, regardless of what it may be, must be done to the best of one's ability in spite of his concern for the future; (4) to help one realize that his obligation as a citizen is to inform

² Pennington, L. A., and Berg, Irwin A. *An Introduction to Clinical Psychology*. Ronald Press, New York, 1948.

himself as completely as possible regarding the controversial issues and to form his own opinions and to attempt to influence others through such means as are available, as speaking and writing, yet not forgetting the obligation to accept the majority decisions of the people and the government; (5) to help one accept that as a citizen he must expect to serve his country in whatever capacity may be required and that he is obliged through training, when possible, to render the greatest service of which he is capable.

The following recommendations are made by the committee:

1. That a few individuals trained as therapists be briefed on the basic facts of Selective Service. These individuals to be available to conduct discussion groups as requested by organizations and student groups.
2. That after two or three of these discussions have been held, a review of the response and success be accomplished with Dean Houston and such other individuals as may be appropriate to determine future action.
3. That action be taken through the Executive Council or other means to enlist the help of classroom teachers in dealing with the problem, and that qualified individuals be available to the various faculties or departments to discuss the problem upon invitation.
4. That the Office of Dean of Students be the central office coordinating the activities recommended above.

After the report was made on February 16, 1951, it was decided to conduct several meetings where an attempt would be made to discover the real feelings of students and to get their suggestions for meeting their needs. The aid of a psychologist who is doing research in group dynamics was enlisted, and he agreed to provide some trained group leaders who could assist with the project.

On February 19 the first meeting was held. A fraternity meeting was conducted by several members of the "Morale Committee" where most of the men expressed the opinion that they were pretty well informed about the draft and its provisions, but they needed much more information about the various occupations and specialties available in the armed services. The majority seemed to be highly motivated to make the best use of their abilities, aptitudes, and experiences in the services or in

civilian occupations. In the two hours available for discussion little evidence was found to indicate the need for "anxiety counseling." In this connection it should be said, however, that the fraternity selected by this "trial run" was one which has manifested many signs of maturity in recent years. It is possible, too, that pride prevented some of the people who most needed help from admitting that fact. Many college-age students characteristically reject any form of assistance or advice from "elders."

On February 21 the author of this paper and the University psychiatrist met with a group of graduate students who are dormitory counselors. They reported that "the new rule concerning enlisting has helped to relieve tension but more information about the services would serve further to allay anxiety." These counselors said, "Most men have accepted the idea that they must join the Army, Navy, or Air Force, but now they want to know in what branch they should go."

Since February 21 many meetings have been conducted, but no attempt will be made here to report them in detail. Some relatively "secure" groups have been found which seem to have solved most of their problems. Some others have been found where morale is very low.

The findings of the committee have been reported to the Executive Council of the University. This Council has indicated its interest in the project and its desire to have members of the committee speak to the members of the several faculties. In these meetings it is planned to give faculty members facts about the draft and some information about opportunities for specialized personnel in the various branches of the armed services. Facts will be given, now that they are available, concerning the opportunities for good students to continue in college until graduation and then to get work in temporarily draft-exempt essential industries. Faculty members will be informed about the extent to which insecurity and anxiety are "contagious" and will be encouraged to refrain from unnecessary comment on discouraging aspects of the international situation. No effort will be

made to install a system of "thought control" or any form of suspension of academic freedom, but the danger of "ad-libbing," stating personal opinions without substantiating facts, and "talking on a tangent which is not in our field," will be pointed out. Faculty members will be encouraged to counsel anxious students and to refer them to the counseling service if they believe them to be in need of expert assistance. Particular attention will be given to those who do not qualify for continuation in college.

RECOMMENDATIONS BASED ON EXPERIENCE

1. Recognize that faculty members, who are the real opinion- and attitude-forming elements of the college population, be kept well informed about the facts concerning draft legislation, the opportunities for good students to continue their education, and the opportunities in essential industry or the armed services. Faculty members who have perspective concerning world affairs can help students to develop it.
2. Make provision that faculty members be advised concerning the seriousness of their responsibility to students concerning the present crisis. Students need to be challenged—not discouraged.
3. Make plans to disseminate facts to students. Men and women must be given accurate information to offset rumors and to reduce anxiety about draft legislation, recall of reservists, and the opportunities for completing college work. The need for workers in essential industries must be made clear and policies of employers in agreeing to reemploy drafted workers must be made known. The student newspaper, campus or local radio station, and bulletin boards can be used for these purposes but are not sufficient in themselves. Printed bulletins should be given to each student or announcements should be made in all dormitories, fraternities, and sororities. Students must be helped to understand their responsibilities and to accept them; mental health can be maintained only if people accept, face, and solve their problems.
4. Arrange, if possible, for well conducted discussions in all living groups. There is plenty of "discussion" now, but

often it is not based on facts and sometimes is dominated by fearful, insecure people. It is difficult to maintain good mental health in an unhealthy group. The group must be improved before one can expect to help single individuals. Reasonably well-informed student or faculty discussion is preferable, in which it is possible for a trained observer or leader to discover the student who needs "anxiety counseling."

5. Keep campus leaders well informed. Members of the Student Council or Commission, Dormitory Councils, Pan Hellenic, Independent Students Association, and Interfraternity Council can be informed during their regular meetings. All students of group dynamics point to the importance of the leader as a "key" element in controlling or affecting group behavior or thought. Campus leaders can help greatly in developing student insight and perspective.

6. Experiment with groups and evaluate needs for information and methods of dissemination. If qualified personnel is available, it is interesting to apply group-therapy methods with aggregations of students which seem to be badly demoralized. It is desirable again to mention the effect of the group on the individual members. If the emotional climate of the group is bad, it is difficult for individuals to have good mental health.

7. Provide adequate individual-counseling service and inform all faculty members of its availability. If trained counselors are not available, several faculty members who are interested and naturally endowed to help students should be designated as faculty advisers. Referral of all students who are disturbed or in a noticeable anxiety state is essential.

a. Counseling for adjustment may be done by well-trained counselors or psychologists. If the case is too disturbed, he should be referred to a psychiatrist. Development of insight or understanding of the facts of alternatives, often will serve to reorient the anxious individual. Adolescence is a period of great insecurity and emotional stress even under "normal" conditions, so it is to be expected that

many young people will have mild or severe adjustment difficulties. Extreme cases, involving ego strengthening and/or situation simplification, require much time, patience, and skill but are rewarding because some of the people who have much to contribute to society, potentially, may be in need of it.

b. Counseling for planning is needed badly by many students. In our very complex society many students are badly confused even in "normal" times. They are unable adequately to assess their abilities and aptitudes, in relation to the requirements of the world of work, even when they are not under the stress of war threat.

8. Consider the advisability of providing an orientation program for all entering students for the first quarter or semester. There is great need for specialized orientation for the people who will be entering collegiate institutions in the years to come, but it must be conducted by students or faculty members who are well trained and experienced in this type of work. Orientation in large groups has not been found to be successful.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

There are at least two schools of thought about educational personnel work. There is the old "rough and tough" school which believes that everyone should work out the solutions to his own problems by himself. Perhaps one of the reasons why our mental institutions are so crowded is that these people have been in control in too many schools and colleges. They do not fully understand the implications of our modern interdependence and its inevitable tensions and conflicts.

There is another school of thought which advocates analysis, evaluation, and treatment of people's problems according to the laws and principles of individual differences. This personnel point of view in education is based on a knowledge and understanding of the facts which are known concerning adolescents and their growth and development. Adherents of this school of thought will do everything possible to help youth to adjust to one of the most difficult and crucial periods in human history. We need our human resources very much and must conserve and utilize them intelligently.

Chapter 10. Administering the Student-Personnel Program¹

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EDUCATIONAL history might have termed the post-World-War-II years "the hectic era" but for the uncertainties and perplexities which promise that higher education will be just as hectic in the next few years. In that busy period of 1946-1950 colleges and universities extended themselves to provide education for the thousands of

veterans who thronged the campuses. Many institutions found themselves accelerating the development of many aspects of their educational programs, chief among them the whole field of personnel services. With the student anonymity resulting from increased class size, these services, in their many ramifications, have come into their own as a major instrument in providing elements of individualized attention. On some campuses services were developed in coordinated fashion, largely because of groundwork laid before the war. In the vast majority of schools, however, most of these programs developed, or were inaugurated, with little or no reference to any larger plan of organization.

Having come through the "shakedown" period, colleges and universities now are

¹ An address presented before Groups 3A and 3B of the sixth annual National Conference on Higher Education, Chicago, Illinois, April 2, 1951. Chairmen of the groups were Bernard L. Hyink, University of Southern California, and J. Thomas Askew, University of Georgia; consultants were L. L. Love, University of Mississippi, and O. T. Richardson, Ball State Teachers College; and recorders were Mildred B. Sayre, Arizona State College, and Wesley P. Lloyd, Brigham Young University.

faced with the problems of achieving integration and articulation of these functions, some quite new to a campus, others well established. In this period of diminishing budgets the study of organization and administration becomes all the more important because of the possibilities of improving efficiency and effecting significant economies.

Though the general principles of good administration in any field apply to the administration of a student-personnel program, there are certain special guiding principles which are particular to the realm of higher education. Some of these are the following:

1. The central focus of education is the student. Expressed in terms of the student-personnel program, this is the *whole* student in all his relationships and adjustments.

2. The student-personnel-service program cannot exist in a vacuum. To be fully effective, each of the services must be closely interrelated with the basic educational objectives of the institution, and such relationships must be communicated to and experienced by both students and faculty.

3. The change to more specialized types of services and persons performing them in the current educational scene is a reflection of changing socio-economic patterns and the actual improvement of our understandings and techniques.

4. No "perfect" organizational pattern for student-personnel services has yet been developed. The organization must evolve from the needs of the institution, and must have validity in order to survive.

The complexity of a student-personnel program and the need for integrated organization are apparent when we consider that a total program must take account of the student needs served by admissions, registration, cumulative records, counseling, health service, housing and food service, extra-class activities, financial counseling, placement services, disciplinary counseling, and special remedial clinics.

The following discussion of the various functions which usually are

included in the student-personnel program will include: (1) underlying philosophy; (2) essential operations; (3) staffing standards in some cases; and (4) some criteria for internal survey and effectiveness of operation. It is not presumed that each of these functions will always require services of full-time specialists. These are simply fundamental operations which must be performed in any institution, regardless of size or type.²

Recent years have seen the admissions function elevated from a mere credit-counting procedure to that of an initial counseling contact with the prospective student, his parents, teachers, and perhaps others in his community. For some institutions, the counseling service may be directly involved, for others at least on a referral basis. Once the student is admitted, such records as his test results, personal data, high-school record, statement of educational goals, etc., should be forwarded from this office to the counselors or others who will be involved in subsequent phases of the student's adjustment within the institution.

Closely allied to, but frequently separated from, the admissions function is the registration function and its responsibility for keeping a permanent record of the student's academic relationship with the institution. Efficiency dictates the importance of a close integration of these two functions, inasmuch as the follow-through is direct, and elimination of considerable duplication of records may be accomplished. The office of the registrar is the agency for advising the student with regard to his status in satisfying the degree requirements of the institution, and in this relationship, should be an integral part of the educational-counseling function.

Many institutions with enrollments of 3000 students or more are finding economy and efficiency in the installation of punched-card methods of handling registration and related records. Where the admissions and records functions are combined, experience indicates the need of one clerk per 400 to 500 students being processed.

Academic success and perseverance of students in school are direct criteria for the evaluation of the admissions functions. The extent to which faculty

² For more detailed discussion of these functions reference should be made to *The Student-Personnel Point of View*, American Council on Education Studies, Series VI, No. 13, September, 1949, Washington, D. C., and the forthcoming brochure in the same series on administration and organization of student-personnel services.

standards and policies of admission are being properly interpreted and applied may be studied by examination of the number of and nature of deviations from the admissions policies.

Except for delays in the process of advising, which result in giving the student more complete individual consideration, effective operation should make possible the average student's being completely registered in a maximum of 30 minutes in an institution of any size.

Counseling services have become widely accepted as a most essential element in the educational program whether performed by full-time professionally trained counselors, or faculty members. Among widely accepted criteria, the estimate of the equivalent of one full-time counselor per 500 students is most frequently quoted. Estimates varying from \$30 to \$50 per student served as an average budget basis have been proposed. This is not predicated on a total student-body basis, but rather upon the common experience that between 25 and 35 per cent of a student body will seek such service if available.

Increased student efficiency as reflected in improved grades, decreased absences, better perseverance, more-adequate individual adjustment to encountered situations, all are evidences of the effectiveness of the counseling service. In many situations counseling attention has been focused on potentially and actually failing students. Frequently this has been done to the neglect of the importance of insuring that average and superior students are achieving at their expected optimums. An important element in the evaluation of counseling effectiveness may be the degree to which the service is concerning itself with the problem of developing and stimulating leadership in the academic and other life of the college.

Properly integrated into the total educational pattern, the student-health service will provide significant health education and guidance in addition to its normal functions of preventive hy-

giene and therapy. The medical staff may serve valuably in recommendations on administrative actions where health factors may be involved, by inspections and recommendations concerning housing and feeding services on the campus, and, through proper integration, may make recommendations in cases of vocational counseling and job placement after graduation. It is important to recognize that the ethics of the medical profession prevent the release of information without a student's consent. The doctors may *recommend appropriate action*, however, without compromise of their ethical standards.

In the most recent survey of college health services, Mr. Robertson reported these recommendations of the American Student Health Association for a college student-health service: one full-time physician for the first 500 to 800 students and one additional physician for the next 1000 to 2000; one full-time nurse including infirmary nurses for each 500 to 2000 students. In schools exceeding 2000 enrollments staffing should vary with the type of services to be offered.³

Among the most significant criteria for evaluating the effectiveness of a health service are the extent to which hospital beds are kept empty through the program of preventive medicine and early discovery and remediation of illness; the extent to which students are willing to bring to the doctors problems of serious import; and diminution of absence from class due to illness. Recurrent epidemics of various sorts may indicate either lack of staff or facilities, inadequacy of personnel or both.

The operation of student housing and food services requires the closest cooperation of the staffs of student personnel, of business management and plant maintenance. Where the student-personnel staff has little or nothing to do with these functions, the significant education values of guided group-living experiences, of student self-government, of recreation and social living, and of effective study-habit programs may be lost. Ideally, all such closely related functions should be grouped into a single department under the joint supervision of the head of the student-personnel-services program and of the

³ Robertson, Frank O., *Health Services in State Institutions of Higher Learning in Mississippi*. American Council on Education, Washington, D. C., 1950.

head of the business-management functions.

Some institutions recently created a significant type of personal-counseling service through the use of professionally trained counselors as head residents, with graduate students in training as assistants. Within the limits of the institution's ability to finance the program, the greater the number of professionally trained personnel who can be employed directly within the dormitories, the greater will be the benefits to the individual student and ultimately to the total student morale.

The pressure of inflated food costs against a fixed-charge program may seriously affect the calibre of college food services. Needless to say, quality must be a first consideration, but close on its heels is the element of variety. Colleges may have to give consideration to the possible temporary loss of revenue in such an area in order to provide adequately for this basic factor in student morale.

Aside from the overt expressions of student satisfaction with food and lodging services, the extent to which dormitories are self-regulated, the extent to which student committees and government handle internal-discipline problems, the number and intensity of disciplinary problems all are criteria of the administration of these services.

The past 15 years have seen a marked shift from regarding student activities as a sort of educational side show to a recognition of them as a valid part of the educational program. College-administration attitudes still range from a completely *laissez-faire* attitude, through one of "policing" such activities to prevent them from embroiling the institution in undesirable community relations, to the ideal of incorporating them into the educational mainstream so as to derive maximum possible contributions for the student, the institution, and society.

There is no fixed formula for staffing such services. Traditionally these have been the bailiwicks of deans of men and deans of women. Here is one of the most important areas for securing co-operation of faculty members through their participation as group advisers. This is not easy to do, but once accom-

plished, faculty members will find themselves deriving personal satisfactions in student contacts which can be obtained in no other way. A precaution in this regard is the establishment, where possible, for annual election of faculty advisers, with limitations on numbers of terms of service, to prevent a faculty member from obtaining, consciously or unconsciously, a strangle hold which prevents the participating students from experiencing genuine growth in problem-solving and self-determination.

Financial aids to students in the form of scholarships, loans, part-time jobs, and grants-in-aid are best administered through a financial-counseling service which will assist the student in planning and budgeting, and insure his learnings in the area of financial responsibility. Staffing and budgeting of such a service will vary widely with the characteristics of a given college. The volume of loans processed is not in itself a significant criterion until the actual number of students thus served is also considered. The student who makes frequent visits to this agency may be in need of considerable counseling.

In the area of part-time work, a major criterion is the extent to which student needs are met with actual job opportunities. Good administration will be characterized by follow-up procedures to determine whether students actually report for work, are hired or not, and the subsequent degree of employer and employee satisfaction.

The placement-after-graduation function is so closely related to the preceding service as to suggest the desirability of incorporating these two areas under a single administrative head. The concentration of placement functions in a complex institution is highly desirable. Recruiting officers from business and industry resent, and reasonably so, the necessity of many contact letters, and much wandering about a campus when they are in search of graduates in various areas. Centralization will, of course, call for much attention to liaison with appropriate faculties, but will pay significant dividends in terms of time-saving of faculty members as well and better public relations with potential employers.

In addition to the academic record and conventional-reference letters, employ-

ment credentials should contain pertinent recommendations from the health service and the counseling service with regard to the student's choice of vocational objective. Placement officers who have fought shy of mimeographed or dittoed reproductions on the appearance argument are now finding inexpensive methods of photographic reproduction which retain all of the values of the original typed document.

Evidence of the efficient functioning of a placement service will be found in the repeated, enthusiastic visits of recruiting officials. There should be close cooperation between the placement staff and the various academic staffs, with information flowing back to instructional staffs concerning the adequacy of graduates, as well as employment trends; there should be an aggressive program of letter contacts originating in the institution, inviting recruiting officials of all types to visit the campus for student interviews; and a well-coordinated program of group meetings, individual interviews, and summary conferences with appropriate faculty groups should follow such visits. Continuing service to alumni is inexpensive, but highly productive of good public relations.

As a matter of institutional service to its students, and certainly as a factor in building and retaining student good will, the placement service operated by the institution should be free of charge to the student except for such special items as photographs which may be required on certain types of forms. The acceptance of a fee, however small, for such service, immediately takes this function out of the realm of institutional service, and gives the student the feeling that he is purchasing a commercial service.

There is a marked swing away from the legalistic approach toward disciplinary problems to that of regarding such problems as manifestations of underly-

ing maladjustments which may be amenable to counseling therapy.⁴ With this shift, the function of the disciplinary official changes to that of determining remediability, and the desirability of retaining the student in school for such a process of therapy. If therapy fails, or if the nature of the offense is such as to warrant dismissal in the interests of the student body as a whole, the final action should be one of a committee nature which removes the onus from the disciplinary counselor.

With the possible exception of remedial reading and study-habit clinics, there is no well-defined trend toward the location of other special clinics, such as remedial speech and hearing, in the bailiwick of student-personnel services.

Perhaps the most important criterion of effective administration, aside from the primary one of evaluating results accomplished, is the degree to which such services are articulated with instructional and other service functions so as, among other things, to reduce duplication in tests, records, and related procedures. Regardless of whether such services are attached administratively to correlated instructional departments, or whether they are made parts of the total program of student-personnel services, their ultimate values will be realized only insofar as they contribute to the over-all scholastic adjustment and personal effectiveness of students.

Mr. Emch⁵ has proposed ten basic principles of organization which may serve as a basis for the proper incorporation of student-personnel services into the educational program. They are as italicized:

1. *The functions of student-personnel work in furthering the objectives of the institution must be clearly stated.* These must be understood by the faculty and student body, as well as by the individuals charged with carrying out a specific responsibility.

2. *Performance of all the essential functions must be provided.* It is not enough merely to state objectives. There must be evidence of having made provision for those functions and services which will enable the institution to achieve these objectives.

⁴ Williamson, E. G., and Foley, J. D., *Counseling and Discipline*. McGraw-Hill Book Company, New York, 1949.

⁵ Emch, Arnold F., "The Organization and Management of Universities." Address before the 27th Annual Meeting of the Association of Governing Boards of State Universities and Allied Institutions, October 5-9, 1949, Boulder, Colorado.

3. *There must be an organization plan which defines the functions of each part of, and each position in, the organization.* Meeting this principle requires that each office know its functions, that these functions be known to all other agencies, to the faculty and students, and that there be a ready willingness to call upon each other as the case may require.

4. *Single and distinct lines of authority from top to bottom must be provided.* Not only must the subordinate departments respect their internal chain of command and their relationships with the instructional functions, but the president of the college must have at hand a competent lieutenant to carry into operation his policies for the institution. By their older tradition of organization along sex lines in coeducational institutions, student-personnel services have been plagued frequently by different and sometimes quite inconsistent policies with reference to the two sexes.

5. *The organization should be as simple as possible.* If it is kept in mind that the central focus of all our activities is the student, the organization of services will be designed to meet his needs, rather than to satisfy desires for complicated committee and administrative structure.

6. *Similar or related functions should be grouped together in logical fashion.* In almost every college or university administrative setup there are "peaks" and "valleys" in work loads. In an era when economy will be forced upon higher education out of sheer necessity, logical groupings of functions may make possible simplification of records and reduction of personnel, and even may be accompanied by improved service.

7. *Each executive and worker must have a span of responsibility no greater than he can discharge effectively.* Student-personnel work is no exception to Mr. Emch's observation that, "An organization which tolerates excessive work-loads and excessive spans of supervision is truly vulnerable to breakdown of performance. Failure to meet schedules, backlogs of work, continual requests for overtime, inability to meet routine or special requirements, low morale, are all symptoms that may stem from excessive work-loads."

8. *There must be flexibility of organi-*

zational structure to meet changing circumstances and special problems. Inflexibility of individuals as well as inflexibility of organizations has frequently resulted in the superimposition of new functionaries and new agencies, with frequently unwarranted increases in administrative overhead. In the field of student-personnel work, an excellent illustration is the addition of a "Dean of Students" or "Director of Student Personnel," with already present "Dean of Men" and "Dean of Women"; or, the establishment of coequal individuals of each sex attempting to administer jointly a single program, or even more drastic, a double-channel program in a coeducational institution.

9. *There must be provision for the proper development and placement of qualified personnel.* To get the job done well, there must be at least a minimum of professional attitude and know-how as well as the other personal characteristics which make a man or woman successful in human-contact work.

10. *There must be objective criteria for the evaluation of success of each part of and each worker in the organization.* It cannot be denied that higher education has been woefully remiss in the evaluation of its functions and functionaries. A job is to be done. A given amount of money is to be spent getting the job done. Certainly, the administration has both the right and responsibility to employ appropriate measures to insure that maximum return of services is resulting from the funds invested.

This paper has not purported to advance any single, "ideal" pattern of organization and administration of student-personnel services. It has attempted to set up a series of guideposts in terms of functions, criteria, and principles of organization which the administrator or faculty member may use in the examination of his own structure. The specific pattern which eventuates on a given campus is not important. What is important is that the foregoing objectives and principles be achieved in any given type of organization so that the student-personnel-services program will be integrated with the total educational structure in the development of "wholly" educated young men and women.

Chapter 11. Next Steps in Removing Barriers to Higher-Education Opportunity¹

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NO gathering such as this, for considering the plight and progress of American higher education, has the right to deal with its problems in a social vacuum, shorn of historical context and unrelated to the events of today which shape tomorrow. The degree to which we keep our deliberations constantly related to the major movements of contemporary history will, I suspect, be the measure of the meaning of this meeting. In such perspective, we cannot consider "Next Steps in Eliminating Barriers to Higher-Education Opportunity" without recalling why we are concerned with eliminating such barriers. The causes of our concern are clear, direct, inescapable. They are, mainly, three.

We wish to eradicate barriers to equality of educational opportunity because we hold certain truths to be self-evident . . . that all men are created equal . . . endowed by their Creator with certain inalienable rights. We cannot longer submit to the perversion of our heritage which says that all men are equal and some are more equal than others. Wishing to take the hypocrisy out of democracy, we cannot live in peace with our own consciences when we make shift with inequality of opportunity. "Our American heritage of freedom and equality has given us prestige among the nations of the world and a strong feeling of national pride at home. There is much reason for that pride. But pride is no substitute for steady and honest performance, and the record

shows that at varying times in American history the gulf between ideals and practice has been wide." So said the Report of the President's Committee on Civil Rights in 1947.² This contrast between ideals and practices is our first cause of concern.

The disquiet to conscience which comes from that contrast has rootage in the religious and ethical soil of the Hebraic-Christian tradition. The ancient law reads: "The alien who settles beside you shall be treated as a native; and you shall love him as you love yourself, for you were an alien in the land of Egypt." The brother of Our Lord condemned those who paid greater respect and attention to the comfort and welfare of the rich than to the welfare and comfort of the poor, for "God is no respecter of persons." And if there be yet living one who says that discrimination against any man is no business of his, let us recall again the words of John Donne: "No man is an island, intire of it selfe; every man is a peece of the Continent, a part of the maine; if a Clod bee washed away by the Sea, Europe is the lesse, as well as if a Promintorie were, as well if a Mannor of thy friends or of thine own were; any mans death diminishes me, because I am involved in Mankinde; And therefore never send to know for whom the bell tolls; it tolls for thee." The religious and ethical rootage of our political traditions and institutions gives us the second reason for our present concern.

These are enough, but there is a third. A specious and abortive "democracy" is today competing with our partially achieved genuine democracy for the allegiances of men. Like genuine democracy, the Soviet perversions speak fair words, pleasing to the ears of the downtrodden, the oppressed, the disinherited. Our words, against theirs, will prevail little. Action alone will suffice to give meaning to words. Deeds to match our creeds—that will count. It

¹ An address presented before Group 4 of the sixth annual National Conference on Higher Education, Chicago, Illinois, April 2, 1951. Chairman of the group was Felton G. Clark, Southern University and Agricultural and Mechanical College; consultant was Edward Dyer, Phillips University; and recorder was C. E. Partch, Rutgers University.

² President's Committee on Civil Rights. *To Secure These Rights*, Chapter I, p. 9. (A Report.) United States Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C., 1947.

is true that Russia established a special Soviet in the eastern extremities of Siberia which was to be a haven for those of Jewish faith, where they might express their religious genius and freely follow the leadings of conscience. It is true that in thousands of Soviets based on differences in race, language, religion, occupation, and geography, self-expression has been granted to the peoples and tribes of the Soviet Union. It is true that the American Communist Party, through its then principal spokesman, William Z. Foster, in the 1930's outlined its proposal for one of America's minority peoples. In the future Soviet of America, a great downswEEPing crescent, with one end resting in Virginia and the other in Louisiana, was to be the Negro Soviet. It is true that Russian imperialism is today appealing to the raw nationalistic aspirations of the teeming millions of the Far and Near East, reaching with its propaganda into the continent of Africa which lies like a great question mark at the feet of Europe, holding out its fair-sounding hopes to the darker and poorer peoples of the Western Hemisphere itself. We know, the lords of the Kremlin know, and they know that we know they know, that the fair-sounding hopes held out by Moscow are empty, that they are cynically offered and, when accepted, are honored only so long as it is expedient. They know, and we know, and they know that we know, that the alleged self-expression of minorities and nationalities under the Soviets is nothing more or less than the old operation of divide and conquer. We saw it in the liquidation of leadership in the Karelian and Ukrainian nationalisms in the 30's. We saw it in the envelopment and submergence of Poland and Czechoslovakia. We see it in the anxious saber-rattling on the borders of Tito's Yugoslavia. We wonder what has become of the Jews who migrated to eastern Siberia in high hopes—indeed, why it was felt necessary for them to go off by themselves in order to enjoy the alleged freedoms of the new order. We point out that the alleged self-expression of the minorities within the Soviet Union can, by no stretch of the imagination, no art of the Ministry of Propaganda, be made to look like self-determination.

That is the third reason why we are concerned about inequalities of educational opportunity.

Education is the great leavening influence of American life, the great ladder of opportunity on which aspiring youth may climb upward, the great expression of democratic yeast at work. Inequalities of educational opportunity are therefore important weaknesses in our national situation. The sudden, traumatic effect of killing a man by mob violence sets the air waves humming with fresh propaganda. Less dramatic, but equally effective in the hearts and minds of the world's millions is the unrefuted story of the day-by-day lynching of the hopes and aspirations of some of America's people.

Fortunately for us, who take our democratic heritage seriously, the Supreme Court of the United States has spoken. With June, 1950, under the decisions in the Henderson, Sweatt, and McLaurin cases, these United States moved into a new legal climate, one which at long last recovers the fuller meaning of the words written by the Founding Fathers. Once again we realize that "to secure these rights, governments are instituted among men." Once again, each of us knows afresh that he is "involved in Mankind." Once again, we see that barriers to opportunity based on race, religion, sex, national origin, poverty, or place of birth and residence are un-American. That is why we meet today to discover what next steps may be taken to remove such barriers.

I do not point the accusing finger at any section of the nation. There is not one section or part of this land which is free from inequalities of one kind or another. Is it racial inequality you decry? You will find it in the great Northwest as readily as in the great Southeast. Does discrimination based on national origin cause you concern? Let not the New Englander criticize the Southwesterner on this score. Is it freedom from religious bigotry you seek? Then name the state which is free of it, the city where it does not stalk the streets. Do you want the colleges and universities to admit students without racial or religious discrimination? Then, as you point with pride and approval at a few states which are cur-

rently making earnest in the matter, let that pride be tempered with the remembrance that these most progressive states are merely those which have acknowledged that, within their own borders, progress is necessary. Is it the economic barrier to educational opportunity which matters most to you? Then show us where poverty has been eradicated and all who have college abilities come from families able to pay for a college education. No . . . this is not a sectional matter. We have neither the time nor the disposition to divide our forces by bickering over which part of the nation is more greatly in need of salvation.

I turn now from mood to method. How shall we decide what steps are to be taken in removing barriers to equality of educational opportunity? It is the function of this group to determine which steps, in what directions, should be taken. My function is the much more modest one of suggesting certain tools of analysis which may be useful to the group in choosing which steps are to be taken.

Our major problem is not that of discovering things which wait to be done. We know that the *economic* barrier prevents at least half of the young persons who have college ability from gaining a college education, and that without removal of this financial barrier, "equality of educational opportunity" is only a semantic exercise. We know that *geographical* barriers stand in the way of college attendance, that bringing the institution closer to the student is, in the long run, as important a step as bringing the student to the institution. We know that *cultural* barriers stand in the way of many—that, for example, there is less predisposition to attend college in the face of discouraging odds in some homes than in others, because of the accumulated generations of discouragement and docility which have settled down upon great sections of the population. We know that artificial *social* barriers have been erected along lines of racial and religious differences; that there is often a differential in encouragement to students based on difference of sex; that national origin still constitutes a formidable barrier to educational opportunity, despite athletic scholarships

awarded to the brawny sons of immigrant stock. We know that many of these barriers are expressed in *institutional* policies, as reflected in admissions practices, with or without a quota system; as carried out in housing and living arrangements, including both the dormitories and fraternity and sorority houses in many instances; as extended to *off-campus areas* of discrimination, in recreation and other public services and facilities in the town or city surrounding the campus; as built up in *patterns* of selection and promotion of faculty and staff *personnel*; as imbedded in *curricular offerings* designed to appeal to particular interests and personalities and backgrounds without adequate effort to meet the needs of others whose differing desires and deficiencies may be equally legitimate educational criteria; as determined in the *patterns of control* which governing boards prescribe and administer. We know that sometimes the barriers are embalmed in tradition, while in other cases they are part of the written law. We know that sometimes discrimination is organized, actively promoted, assiduously and jealously defended, while in other instances inequalities are perpetuated through inertia, blindness, and indifference. We are not faced with the problem of discovering things that wait to be done.

Nor is our primary problem that of discovering what tools and methods of correction are available. We have witnessed the fact that *legislation* has a powerful effect, either positive or negative; that morality cannot be legislated, but that legislation can be immoral. We know that *court decisions* are of pivotal importance in pinpointing a problem as well as in winning broad gains; that the fifth and 14th amendments to the Constitution mean what they say, when the courts finally say what they mean. We know that there are occasions when *law enforcement* may be the crux of the matter, and the problem rests with the agencies designed to enforce the laws and protect the rights of citizens. We know that while there are differences between the local, state, and national levels of work, in terms of legislation, adjudication, and enforcement, there are also basic similarities in all these levels, and progress on any front may help on

other fronts—as sometimes it may also create greater difficulties or arouse more determined opposition. We also know that in some quarters the promise of progress is offset by the threat of retrogression; there are at least a few who are beginning to be aware of one fact almost too obvious to be recognized; namely, that there is a strange contradiction between the universal acknowledgment of the benefits and desirability of higher education on the one hand, and, on the other hand, the meager and inadequate support of public elementary and secondary education which is supposed to prepare boys and girls for entrance into the higher institutions.

Our major problem is not that of discovering things which wait to be done—steps to be taken. Our real problem is that of choosing out of the many things, waiting to be done, those which it is strategic to attack *now*. Would it, then, seem wise to ask a few questions about each project, in an effort to sift out the more promising lines of work to be undertaken this year and the next and the next?

1. *Is it urgent?* On the principle that the grease goes to the loudest squeak, choices are sometimes made. It may be that well-planned attack upon a single problem which, in itself is not of great intrinsic importance, may, because of its immediacy, be strategic. I happen to know of one campus where concerted student action to solve the matter of discrimination in a barber shop was by all means the most important step to be taken last year. It has opened great doors of opportunity for more far-reaching efforts. It was the "hot" issue one October weekend. Failure to meet that seemingly unimportant situation would have resulted in reversing a hopeful trend, because it would have symbolized campus indifference to an urgent issue which engaged student and faculty attention. It could not wait.

2. *Is it compassable?* Within the resources of the individuals, groups, and organizations which can be enlisted for the particular enterprise, is the proposed project one which can be encompassed in a reasonable time? We know that college campuses are traditionally the homes of lost causes, but that is no

reason for deliberately setting about a task which is not compassable. This is not to discourage the long-range educational campaign, the broad, slow sweep of a national effort, the patient work of the reformer who is aware of the glacial movement of the generations—the hope of the teacher or the administrator who is sensitive to the organic character of institutional life and knows that growth is not a matter of disjuncture but of development. At the same time, sound strategy lies in cutting the garment to the cloth; in recognizing that defeat of larger objectives often comes through overlooking those which are more immediately attainable; in seeing to it that American youth on the nation's campuses is not given an acid bath of disappointment and failure, leading to ultimate cynicism and resignation, merely because leadership was not wise enough to break larger problems down into compassable units which were attainable within reasonable lengths of time.

3. *Does it lead beyond itself?* As between two projects, one of which can be finished off and forgotten, wrapped up and put away, and which leaves those who have worked at it with a temporary elation followed by an emptiness of soul with no more worlds to conquer—as between that sort of project and another which, on completion, leads on to new fields of endeavor—the choice is clearly for the latter. One of the primary criteria for selecting educational experience is precisely this matter of whether or not completion of the unit will lead on to something else or whether it leads down a blind alley.

4. *Is it where WE can get at it?* Not for one moment would we discourage the earnest study of world problems if for no other reason than the fact that an intelligent understanding of the larger scene is the best perspective with which to examine the local situation. There are, of course, compelling reasons which should lead us to use every legitimate means for creating world awareness and the ability to see through the maze of conflicting reports and propaganda, to have informed opinions on Tito or Iran or Korea or taxation or the drafting of 18-year-olds. Having said these things, we may be permitted sharply to criticize

those who use the exploration of world issues as an excuse for overlooking the task which lies close at hand. Often-times proximity is one of the soundest criteria for selection of next steps to be taken. It also is one of the better ways to avoid the sin of self-righteousness which not infrequently roots in sectional pride, a vice which leads the Northerner to cry aloud about segregation of Negroes in the South, the while he does nothing about anti-Semitism on his own campus, or in any other way quiets the conscience of the morally indolent whose nostrils have become too accustomed to the stench which rises from their own back yards.

5. *Is it genuine or specious?* One of the most encouraging signs of the present moment of academic life is the fact that many student organizations, called fraternities—and therefore supposedly dedicated to brotherhood—are becoming acutely aware of the contradiction between their names and some of their practices. One of the most disquieting phenomena of the current moment of history is the fact that some campuses are being subjected to pressures from without and are yielding to hysterias within, resulting in the temporary victory of demagogic perversions of Americanism. The outbreak of native facism, and its presence on some campuses, is as troubling a problem as is the upcropping of communism. Educators, above all others, ought to be able to look behind the fine phrase and the fair words, to lift the hooded robe or tear away the deceitful mask, and to expose double-talk for what it is. There is all the difference in the world between the exploitation of the Scottsboro boys by the American Communist Party and the long battle to win freedom for those boys by the American Scottsboro Committee. Frequently a tragedy is enacted on college campuses, growing out of the cynical practice of designing persons who exploit the idealism of youth and the gullibility of professors who should know better but do not. That tragedy stems from an inability to distinguish between genuine and specious efforts to overcome inequalities and to remove barriers.

There are many other criteria which might be mentioned. I name only one more:

6. *Is it reproducible?* Sometimes a choice lies between a venture which is so unique in its components as to have little in it which is universal, and another which has in it those elements of commonality which make a successful attack upon it a demonstration of good practice which others may emulate. Contagion is a device for spreading things other than disease. The contagion of good example might lead—indeed does lead—to the development of nationwide movements. Organizations within the teaching profession, like the National Education Association or the American Council on Education or the American Association of University Professors, can become the means of such contagion.

I have spoken of the mood in which we seek to remove barriers to equality of educational opportunity. I have spoken on the matter of method. Let me now conclude with a brief word on the meaning of the enterprise which is before us.

Equality is, of course, a goal or ideal rather than an immediately attainable objective. That ideal sits in judgment upon every practical situation. Each situation is to be judged, not on some absolute scale of distance from the goal, but on a relative scale which places emphasis on direction rather than upon present status. The most important thing is not whether, at this moment and in this particular place, we are near the goal or far from it. Much more important is the direction we are heading—and the question of whether we are moving. He who is near the goal, but resting on his laurels, is to be more condemned than praised; he who, far from the goal, presses toward it is to be more praised for his efforts than condemned for his late start. That perspective is part of the meaning of *next* steps—and of the *taking* of those steps—in each situation.

Another part of the meaning of this discussion is bound up in the critical importance of the contemporary hour of national and world development. There are those who are saying, as they said ten short years ago, that a moratorium

must be declared on all efforts to realize the democratic ideal, because we have a war to win. Under the guise of professional patriotism, or with a bland plea for what they call "unity" (meaning acceptance of their point of view by all others), or by giving loud lip service to the defense effort as a means of drowning the voice of conscience, there are those who would call a halt on reduction or removal of barriers to equality of educational opportunity, "for the duration." It is as though Patrick Henry had said on an historic day, "I know not what others may do; as for me,

give me life, and I'll take my chances on getting liberty later."

The point of the matter is just this: the struggle for equality of educational opportunity is of the essence of the cold war, and will be of the essence of any hot war which—despite all efforts to the contrary—may come upon us, just as it is also of the essence of the peace which we trust may yet be enjoyed by mankind. The future of the race marches forward on the feet of youth. Tomorrow's democracy will march freely and without fear only if today's less perfect democracy moves forward, step by step, unhesitatingly.

Chapter 12. Extending G.I. Educational Benefits¹

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IN 1936, a man stood up in Europe and, shouting his defiance to the world, said, "In our new order, education is only for the few who have been chosen to serve the State. The masses will be allowed to enjoy the blessings of ignorance." Freedom-loving people everywhere were amazed and enraged. The institutions of democracy, including education, were being threatened by Adolph Hitler and his satellites.

America threw herself into the conflict of World War II with all her resources of men, money, and material. Even as she sacrificed and fought, however, she gave thought to the future. What should we do about the millions of American youths who had been uprooted from home and school? Should they become a lost generation, educationally speaking? Having called upon American youth to protect, among other things, our very ideals of education, should we deny education through indifference to those who had risked all to help preserve it?

America's answer was given on June 22, 1944, when the President signed the Servicemen's Readjustment Act of 1944, popularly known as the G.I. Bill of Rights. This Bill, which was passed unanimously by both houses of Congress, provided for a number of benefits including hospitalization, education, loans, employment, and unemployment. Like most laws, the G.I. Bill was not perfect and has been amended several times, the last time being in July, 1950.

Title II, that part of the law which has to do with education, is, of course, the part that we here are chiefly interested in and concerned with. Under its provisions some \$3,814,000,000 was expended between September, 1944, and June, 1949, for the education of college and university students alone. When to this is added the cost of all other types of training, the taxpayers of the nation have spent approximately \$8,950,000,000 over the five-year period, ending in June, 1949. And so it is perfectly proper for us to ask: Has the G.I. educational program been worth while? Has it been worth the amount expended on it? If the G.I. Bill has been worth while, should it be extended? If it is extended, should it be changed? And if it needs changing, what should these changes be? In fact, a Congressional subcommittee has already written to a

¹ An address presented before Group 5 of the sixth annual National Conference on Higher Education, Chicago, Illinois, April 2, 1951. Chairman was R. R. Hamilton, University of Wyoming; consultant was S. H. Coile, Veterans Administration; recorder was E. W. Ploenges, Millikin University; and consultant on public relations was W. Lowell Treaster, Michigan State College.

number of institutions of higher learning inquiring into the accomplishments and shortcomings of the G.I. educational program. Therefore it is not only our privilege but our duty to give serious attention to these questions while in attendance at this meeting.

First, has the G.I. educational program been worth while? At the beginning of the program many dire things were predicted. Most of these dire things never happened. To be sure, there were a few individuals who gave trouble. There were some veterans who failed scholastically, but in number, neither more nor less than nonveterans. A very few veterans were psychoneurotics, but we have always had such persons in our midst; in fact, we even have had a few such cases among the faculty. In short, the veteran was a perfectly normal individual. He was older and more experienced and therefore more serious minded, but nevertheless he fitted easily and quietly into college life. Apparently that was exactly what he wanted to do. He had no desire to be set apart from others on the campus. He took part in athletics and worked on the student paper. He joined a fraternity and was elected to the student council. He brought a seriousness of purpose to the campus; while at the same time the campus helped him adjust himself back to civilian life.

Most of the veterans are graduating and taking their places in business, industry, and the professions. They are rapidly being assimilated into the economic, social, and political structure of the nation. A large share of them have married, established their own homes, and are rearing families. They have become an active, vital part of America. And so I believe that we, as educators, are almost unanimous in stating that the G.I. educational program has been worth while. It has been worth while, not only to the individuals concerned, but also to the nation.

Now we come to the main question: Should the G.I. Bill be extended? If you agree with me so far, that the G.I. educational program has been worth while, and that the money spent on the program has been justified, it might seem at first glance that the answer to our question is easy, and in the af-

firmative. But a more careful study of the question brings to light some problems, which make an answer to the question anything but easy. Let us examine some of these problems.

The situation in which we find ourselves today is different from the situation when we entered World War II. Pearl Harbor plunged us precipitously into an all-out declared war. The youth of the nation were called into service for the duration, whether that duration turned out to be one year, four years, or longer. And so the nation, through an act of Congress, offered G.I. educational benefits to those who had so ably and courageously defended her.

Today the nation is not engaged in an all-out war, in spite of the bloody and distressing Korean conflict. I am not trying to minimize the seriousness of the Korean war, nor am I depreciating the splendid accomplishments of our troops. I am merely saying that as yet no major power has forced us into a do-or-die conflict. We do, however, find ourselves under such a dangerous threat from Soviet Russia that, for the first time in the history of the Republic, we are seriously considering the adoption of compulsory universal military training and service; with the hope that by being prepared and strong no aggressor nation, not even Russia, will dare attack us. Such a program of armed preparedness is therefore not one of short duration, but one which might last 25 years or even longer. Consequently, we find that in the extension of G.I. benefits we are faced with two problems: one of short-range, because of the Korean conflict; the other of long-range, because of an extended period of military preparedness.

As to the short-range program, a partial answer has already been given by Congress, which has extended the benefits of Public Law 16, The Rehabilitation Act, to the Korean veterans. Furthermore, a bill has already been introduced in Congress which will likewise extend the educational benefits of Public Law 346, the G.I. Bill, to Korean veterans. To me it seems proper that the G.I. Bill be extended to those participating in the Korean conflict. Certainly our troops in Korea have sacrificed and suffered as much as any

troops of World War II. The question has been raised, however, in certain educational circles as to whether G.I. benefits should be limited to the combat-zone veterans of the Korean conflict, or to be extended to all, regardless of the area of service. A soldier does not choose where he is to serve. Instead he serves where he is told to serve. Mere chance may send one man to a combat area, and another man to an equally valuable area far behind the lines. Therefore the benefits should be extended to all.

What about the long-range program? With universal military training the law of the land, and with a program of military preparedness which may last 25 years or more, shall we automatically extend G.I. benefits to all who are given this training? To embark on such a program means some degree of federal subsidization of higher education, with the accompanying possibility of some degree of federal control. Does America want this?

The cost of a long-range program is difficult to estimate because so much depends on how the G.I. Bill might be changed by Congress. The present college program at its peak has cost approximately three-quarters of a billion dollars annually, while the entire program, for all kinds of training, has cost approximately \$1,800,000,000 annually. It should be pointed out, however, that these annual costs have only extended over a period of six years. With the falling off of the program, the annual costs will decline sharply.

Assuming that the annual cost of a long-range program might be much less than the figures just quoted, nevertheless the long-range cost will remain more constant and will extend over a much longer period of time. And even though the long-range cost might not be unreasonably high, still it represents an expenditure of public funds and must be taken into consideration. Furthermore, the expenditure of public funds for higher education must be justified by the services rendered by those persons so educated. Public money should not be utilized merely for the benefit of a special segment of the population.

Aside from the cost, there is still the very important question as to whether

the extension of the benefits over a long period of time is a wise move. Some will argue that since universal military training will make it mandatory that each able-bodied young man serve his country for two years, it is only fair that the nation make it possible for that young man to obtain additional education or training at public expense, if he so desires.

Others will argue that if the nation is not actually at war, but is merely in a period of armed preparedness, during which each inductee gives only a specified length of time to the service, then he should not expect a liberal reward for fulfilling his duty to his country. They would argue that the extension of the G.I. benefits over a long period of time would in effect make mercenaries out of our youth.

These questions are ones which should receive the serious consideration of this group. I believe G.I. educational benefits should not be extended indefinitely until a very careful consideration has been given to all the implications involved. Furthermore, I feel that if a period of armed preparedness should suddenly turn into a period of armed conflict, such as the Korean affair, the Congress can always revive full G.I. benefits for that period. And finally, I feel that if the Congress does see fit to extend G.I. educational benefits indefinitely, the law should certainly be revised. In point of fact, I believe that after almost seven years of operation under the present law, enough has been learned to warrant a change in that G.I. Bill, preparatory to extending benefits to the Korean veterans.

One of the committees of the Department of Higher Education of the National Education Association is the National Committee on the Education of Veterans. During the past six years, this Committee has wrestled with many problems pertaining to education under the G.I. Bill. Most of the problems have pertained to relationships between institutions of higher learning and the Veterans Administration. Some of these problems were difficulties arising from procedures of the Veterans Administration. Such difficulties could generally be ironed out by conference. But other problems have arisen which stem from

the law itself, and are therefore difficult to solve without a change in the law.

This Committee, of which I am a member, met on January 1-2, 1951, and after considering some of these problems, sent a letter of recommendations for changes in the law to the chairman of the House Committee on Veterans Affairs. Perhaps some of you have already read our recommendations, as reported in the January issue of the *Bulletin* of the Department of Higher Education. I wish to outline very briefly what these recommended changes are and the reasons behind them.

First, we recommend that there be a clear line of separation between (a) education obtained in public and private nonprofit educational institutions and (b) other kinds of training such as on-the-job training, farm training, and enrollment in proprietary schools. The present law ties both education and training together, with the result that a V.A. directive written specifically for one group sometimes embarrasses and hampers the other group. In illustration, I need only refer to the famous Circular No. 61 of some five years ago, which placed V.A. inspectors on many campuses, and which caused such an uproar on the floor of our Conference at that time. Then there was the fight over compulsory-attendance records, which we won only after a long struggle, and largely through the efforts of the Department of Higher Education. There have been other misunderstandings, but I need go no further.

Second, we recommend that new legislation provide for an advisory committee to the Veterans Administrator, the committee to be composed of persons who are directly in charge of veterans' affairs on their respective campuses. We feel that if there had been such a "grass-roots" committee during the past seven years, many of the misunderstandings which arose would never have occurred.

Third, we recommend that compensation to educational institutions for the education of veterans be on the basis of flat rates of payment, varying by types of programs, but not to exceed \$500 per school year as in the present law. This topic alone could be made the subject of an entire paper, and our

college treasurers and comptrollers would have much to say. Many of our tax-supported institutions of higher learning have chosen the "other-than-customary-fees" basis for compensation, for the simple reason that the usual fees do not adequately approach the cost of education in those schools. In these institutions the difference between costs and fees is met largely by appropriations from the state legislatures. Since the G.I. program is a federal program the "other-than-customary-fees" contract transfers a large share of that difference to the Federal Government. The unrealistic V.A. "cost-of-teaching" formula and the accompanying intricate V.A. contract has been a constant source of annoyance to many such institutions. For example, the University of Nebraska did not conclude its contract for the 1950-1951 year until the end of March, 1951. This means that we have been operating without a contract since last September; or in other words, we have been "writing it on the cuff."

Fourth, we recommend that payments by the Veterans Administration for books, equipment, and supplies be in the form of a flat allowance to be paid directly to the student, the sum varying if necessary by types of programs. The issuance of books, equipment, and supplies has been a headache from the very start of the program. Many students have felt that they had a right to demand those items which, in their own judgment, they needed. The student objected, often vociferously, when told that it was the institution which was to decide what he needed. It has also been most unfortunate that some faculty members have had the mistaken notion that all kinds of "extras" could be issued to veterans at government expense. In short, the present plan of issuing books, equipment, and supplies to students has made a subsidy program out of what was originally intended to be a scholarship or grant-in-aid program. It is fully recognized that a flat payment for books and supplies will be inequitable in some cases; but so are the present subsistence payments inequitable in some cases, with respect to living costs. The flat payment, if adopted, should be a stated amount. I believe that such a plan would save

money for the government, and would be better for the student.

Fifth and last, we recommend that subsistence payments to veterans be on a fair and reasonable basis as determined by Congress. If the G.I. program is extended into the indefinite future, it is fitting that Congress should carefully study the matter of subsistence. Again I firmly assert that subsistence

should not be in an amount that constitutes a subsidy but should be a grant-in-aid.

Some of you may agree with what I have said; others will disagree in whole or in part. The issues should be studied carefully and, where there is disagreement, debated vigorously. Only by the exchange of ideas and by vigorous debate can logical conclusions be obtained.

Chapter 13. Fostering Student Growth in Religion, Moral Standards, and Spiritual Values¹

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I TAKE it that the listing of three items in the subject title for this section does not mean that the planning committee thought of these as three distinct and mutually exclusive entities. If I might guess what happened in the setting up of the program, I would suppose that one member of the committee was not quite sure that religion inevitably included moral standards, while another doubted whether moral standards necessarily depended on spiritual values; and so, to be sure that every aspect would be considered, each of the three was specifically named. The terms of course are not quite identical, and the course of our discussions will call for some marking of distinctions among them. At the outset, however, I suggest that we treat them as standing substantially in apposition: that we understand religion to embrace both moral standards and spiritual values, as I am persuaded that historically it usually has embraced them and that functionally it should.

I am convinced also that religion, in this fully inclusive sense, belongs on the campus and that it should be fostered among college and university personnel—among faculty and staff no less than

among students. Perhaps there is a critical distinction that must be noted at the start of this enquiry, and that always must be kept in mind. It is the distinction between religion as subject-matter and religion as life. The former is an academic discipline, the latter a complex of personal attitudes and experiences. Let us look at them separately.

RELIGION AS SUBJECT-MATTER

Is religion a legitimate subject of academic investigation? There are two groups of people, groups which agree on nothing else, that will answer this query with a united and emphatic, "No, it should not." One group thinks itself pro-religious, the other anti-religious. The one depreciates objective scholarship in the religious field because it takes religion very seriously, the other because it does not take religion seriously at all. I offer, for testing, the hypothesis that both groups are wrong, not only on the point at issue, but also in their underlying estimates of the nature of religious knowledge.

Perhaps the first group has been largely responsible for the creation of the latter; they who have maintained religion to be too holy for scientific scrutiny have driven many of the scientifically minded to consider religion not holy at all, but merely silly. State laws against the teaching of the evolutionary hypothesis in tax-supported institutions scarcely will encourage a biologist to believe that religion has academic integrity. Historians, too, have been alien-

¹ An address presented before Group 6 of the sixth annual National Conference on Higher Education, Chicago, Illinois, April 2, 1951. Chairman of the group was Hobart F. Heller, Eastern Illinois State College; consultant was M. Willard Lampe, State University of Iowa; and recorder was Sister Rose Dominic, Saint Mary College.

ated from religion, as they have observed it, when either a Protestant has insisted that the Bible must be treated as an exact statement of literal facts, or a Roman Catholic has denied the faculty of certain data about the papacy in the early Renaissance. The concept of the verbal inerrancy of the Scriptures has injured the case of religion also in departments of literature; the literary critic cannot surrender the right to study the Psalms or the "Book of Job" with reference to authorship, style, and points of view, precisely as he studies the backgrounds and texts of Homer or of Shakespeare, and without arbitrary limits set to enquiry in either field.

Yet though there may be some excuse for the supposition that religion is unscholarly by its very nature, in the fact that some religious people have been dismally unscholarly about it, there is no excuse in this day for the very common failure of academic persons to find out the extent and the nature of the genuine scholarship that does exist in the religious field. Religion yields to no other discipline as to the critical, rigorous, fearless work done by those who have qualified themselves in this speciality, as have natural and social scientists in their respective areas. There is a body of knowledge about religious literature that is at least as exact, and that is worked out in as great complexity of detail, as has been achieved with reference to any body of writings. There is a similar consensus, established by hard labor and in full intellectual integrity, about the history of religious institutions and religious thought.

What we may call "standard" scholarship in religion in the modern world stemmed first from work done in Germany from the early 19th Century, then was built upon by British scholars in the next 50 years, and finds what probably is its most vigorous expression today in these United States. The official seminaries of all the major Protestant denominations, as well as such more-or-less ecumenical institutions as Union Theological Seminary in New York and Pacific School of Religion in California, take for granted a single methodology of literary and historical criticism, and are completely in agreement upon a large number of technical

findings which have been worked out and thoroughly tested by devoted and trained minds throughout the years. I will but offer, as one sample, the conclusion that the so-called "Book of Moses" is a compilation of four major strands of material reflecting four successive stages of development over a total range of 500 years plus, and the correlative fact that this conclusion not only is a general one, but is so specific that there is substantial agreement on the assigning of single verses, and even parts of verses, to this one or that one of these ancient literary strata.

This all is commonplace to professional theologians, and also to the host of young men that the seminaries are pouring into the ministry today. I grant that some of the clergy who have been exposed to this sort of training never really caught the infection; I fear that more of them have consciously avoided letting their scholarly judgments be known lest they upset some elderly and well-fixed members of their parishes—well fixed, perhaps, in more senses than one. I suspect it is also true, however, that a good many of those academic personages who hold religion in intellectual contempt have no way of knowing whether or not an intellectually respectable religion is being preached in the churches, since they never go near enough to a church to have a chance of finding out.

There is in this whole range of religion no phenomenon more unscholarly than that of the flat unwillingness of some professed scholars to acquaint themselves with the actual nature of religious scholarship as it exists all around them, and in many cases on their own campuses. What I have said about the chief seminaries of our country is true also of numerous church-related and independent colleges, and of a number of undergraduate schools of religion more or less closely affiliated to state universities. To those who doubt what I have been saying about scholarship in religion there must be posed at once the question, "What books have you ever read in the religious field that were written by scholars of university status and for university readers and students?" The answer of the negating professor normally has to be,

"None." It is now time that he either seek authoritative information from the appropriate authorities, or that, in common decency as well as in correct scholarly caution, he keep silent on a subject about which he is determined to know nothing.

In terms of the existing consensus of religious scholarship, religion as subject-matter has full academic validity. Religion understood in this sense can be taught, and I believe it should be: taught on our campuses, taught with full academic credit, taught by duly qualified persons. This last item is of critical importance. Just because the field of religion has been academically suspect beyond most others, special care must be exercised in the selection of its teaching force. It is not enough to bring in a local retired minister, however lovable and beloved, and assume that by God's grace he will inculcate scholarly methods, or convey dependable information, or encourage his students to develop objectively defensible judgments. The college teacher of religion, who so often finds the common campus dice loaded against him, needs to be even better trained than most of his colleagues, if he is to gain respect for his specialty as a discipline and for himself as a person.

Since in our American society the state colleges and universities are the most of all subject to pressures by the ignorant and the unlearned, it probably will never be possible to create in most of these institutions departments of religion which really can maintain an objective and scientific methodology. Failing that, it is better to do nothing at all. The feeble surrogates called "Bible as Literature," taught here and there in departments of English, commonly and rightly, have earned the contempt of those who know what real scholarship in religion is. Some of these courses, which I have observed in action, take themselves out in, "Oh, isn't the language of the King James version majestic!" I put it to you that no one has a right to presume to lead discussion of the Bible at the university level unless he is conversant with its original languages, and unless he has submitted himself to a curriculum of instruction and research that gives him a right to express judgments about the most intricate problems of literary

structure and of historical relevance. If religion is to be taught in our colleges, it must be taught rightly; and that means that only they who have established their academic competence in this highly specialized field should be permitted to teach it at all.

RELIGION AS LIFE

But religion is not knowledge only; knowledge about religion is not in itself necessarily religious. Religion is not contrary to science, but its essential values are in another realm. The principal cause for the long series of border skirmishes between science and religion (both so-called) has been that the realm of knowledge and that of faith have been hopelessly confused by intellectually muddled combatants on both sides. If we know something, there is no point in our having beliefs about it; we ought to learn all that we can know in the realm of fact. But what we can know absolutely, what we can prove definitively, by no means includes all the values of our life. It is precisely where we cannot know, where we can neither demonstrate by experiment nor establish by logic, that religion has its proper place and renders its true service.

The area of religion is the area of values. The final values of life, the ultimate meanings of experience, are just those that no man can prove, and that no man can disprove either. We can, of course, disprove today some ancient assumptions of what was supposed to be religious faith, such as the existence of a spatial heaven or the immutability of biological species. But we can neither prove nor disprove the being of God, or the usefulness of prayer, or the immortality of the soul, or even the objective validity of our most cherished ethical principles. Intellectually we can do no more with these than to mark out factual limits of possibility, and perhaps to lean a bit one way or the other as to what we may suppose probable. Our ultimate choices must be made by faith, because we have, and we can have, no exact knowledge of the ultimate; and it is faith in values, fidelity to values, that constitute the essential character of religion.

I have been frankly intolerant, as I think I am entitled to be, of all un-

scientific or subscientific treatment of religion as subject-matter. We are not permitted at all to be intolerant of any given expression of religion as faith and as life, because here we have no finally objective criteria that we can use. "Moral standards" are largely cultural products, and "spiritual values" are principally personal loyalties growing out of subjective experience. Neither of these can be measured by any infallible scale, and so neither can be set up in any standard and externally required pattern.

It follows that our colleges, whether private or public, have to turn at this point from classroom procedures to other kinds of action. The church-related college has the simplest problem, because presumably it represents one particular tradition of morality and one special heritage of spiritual experience. The independent and the state institutions have no such single position to promote, and I would say that they have no right to select any one position for promotion. Rather they must delegate the fostering of specific moral standards and spiritual values on the one hand to individuals, who will operate severally as they believe the spirit moves them, and on the other hand to groups which have been organized to advance one or another of innumerable possible religious points of view.

Here the Christian Associations and the denominational foundations (such as Hillel, Newman, Wesley, and Westminster) have their proper place of usefulness. In some cases they should provide technical religious instruction, especially if the campus is one where such instruction cannot be made available within the regular curriculum. Whether or not they do that, their principal responsibility is to urge, and to seek to make real in student life, the values which their founders and their members have counted most important.

Happily the unity of our Western culture is such that usually there are no absolute lines of cleavage among the values that these groups represent. At least within the Protestant framework there is substantial agreement, save in those cases where warfare persists between "fundamentalists" and "liberals." On some campuses there exists a gen-

uine interfaith fellowship, a fellowship not only in good will, but also in united action for the values that are held in common by Roman Catholic, Jew, and Protestant. No independent or state college is authorized to take sides for one of these against another. If for some reason they quarrel, that quarreling will just have to be regarded as one of the expenses incidental to freedom and to growth. Nor, in fairness, can an administration *qua* administration (what its officers do as individuals is quite another matter) favor all the religious groups put together, against those, however ill informed, who think they want to have nothing to do with religion.

With the organizations are to be classified the procedures, such as student conferences and "Religious-Emphasis Weeks." (That latter term surely is unfortunate, suggesting as it does that we shall emphasize religion this week, and the spring formal next week, and maybe nylon hose the week after that. The religious person, believing that religion should and does permeate all of life, will not admit these to be comparable categories.) In the church college the student religious programs easily can be officially sponsored. In the private and state schools probably the most that is permissible is to be given the energizing groups as free a hand as is consonant with academic routine and with social order.

There is, however, a much more vital way than these of "fostering moral standards and spiritual values." It is available in every institution and to every member of its staff. Communally, this is a matter of creating and maintaining such an atmosphere on the campus that decent personal behavior and adequate social responsibility shall be regarded as utterly normal, and any deviation as socially disapproved. The simple matter of friendly personal contact between faculty and students can be one of the major contributors here. One may perhaps cheat readily on the impersonal and almost anonymous lecturer, and even more readily on the quite unseen graduate reader, but not nearly so lightheartedly on the admired and beloved friend. The student-body organization, too, if its leaders regard this sort of thing as important, can do

much to raise the general moral tone. Honor codes provide one illustration, party and dating usages another. Many more will occur to everyone who has had campus experience.

The selection and maintenance of religious values finally is a personal matter. The final and critical instrument of their creation and encouragement is personal, too. Religion as subject-matter can be effectively taught. Religion as life can only be caught; it will be caught only if there are people around from whom the students can catch it. The presence on a campus of even a handful of men and women whose own religion is real and vital will ensure that some students will come to explore the values by which these people live, and thus to discover new and viable meanings and loyalties for themselves. The higher the percentage of intelligently and creatively religious faculty, the greater the likelihood that the values of intelligent and

creative religion will be widely realized and effectively lived.

This week's discussions inevitably will devote much time and attention to details of procedure. Whatever we may learn thereby, whatever we may gain by exchanging tested techniques, will depend for its effectiveness first and last upon the personal values, and so upon the personal religious faith, of us in the section and of our colleagues at home. No methodology, no skill, will make a college religious, or moral, or spiritual, unless those who are seeking these goals are themselves religious in their devotion, and ethical in their conduct, and spiritual in their apprehension. And any methodology, or even a total lack of considered methodology, is practically certain to succeed if only the leadership of an institution really believes in the moral and spiritual values it professes, in the kind of religion that it says it wants the students to share.

Chapter 14. Educating Foreign Students Here and Abroad¹

DONALD J. SHANK

Institute of International Education

CYNICS may be expected to lift skeptical eyebrows at the discussion of international educational opportunities in the world of today. When pessimists are gloomily predicting the imminent collapse of American higher education, when hundreds of thousands of young Americans are engaged in bloody battles in a distant country, when the whole world is divided into bitterly opposed ideological camps, the cynic can argue that everyone should run for the bomb shelter. He can say that there is little hope for mankind.

I would argue that never before in history has it been more important for educators and citizens to discuss and

consider what international educational exchange can contribute to a stable future. There is ample evidence that the people of the United States, and of other nations where men still have free choice, have in recent months thought about this problem and have decided that the skills and understandings which come from study in another country are significant. To prove this, the Institute of International Education has just published its census of foreign students enrolled in United States colleges and universities during the present academic year. It shows that there are 29,813 young student visitors from 121 countries and areas of the world who are studying at this moment in 1435 post-secondary institutions scattered through every state of the Union. If students from countries under communist domination had the freedom to participate in such programs, the number, of course, would be substantially larger. This figure does not include students in lower schools, professors, mature leaders in

¹ An address presented before Group 7 of the sixth National Conference on Higher Education, Chicago, Illinois, April 2, 1951. Chairman of the group was Paul V. Sangren, Western Michigan College of Education; consultants were Paul Lietz, Loyola University, Chicago, Illinois, and Paul E. Smith, United States Office of Education; recorder was Eunice Chapman, Hastings College.

professions, workers, trainees, etc., who have come here for serious educational projects. Conservative estimates would indicate that during the present academic year at least 20,000 American students will go to foreign countries for summer or year-round-study courses. I would like to point out that this tremendous movement of young people sincerely interested in the study of other nations followed the outbreak of hostilities in Korea in June of 1950.

Today, American colleges and universities could not avoid, if they wished, playing an active part in this exchange of persons, which has really become big business. If we assume that each of the 30,000 students now in the United States represents the equivalent of approximately \$2500 per year for travel, maintenance, and tuition, \$75,000,000 are being invested in American higher education.

WHO BENEFITS?

Our cynical friends will argue, of course, that the investment of money, time, and effort in foreign study can have little effect in the present world situation. Idealists with thick, rosy glasses will claim that such exchanges can guarantee peace. My personal judgment is that neither the cynic nor the idealist is right. This is certainly no time for sterile pessimism. On the other hand, we must admit that no one activity, sound as it may be, can assure peace. I would submit, however, that peace will only be built upon real understanding among men and women. This is as true within a family as it is within the complex of nations. I would submit further that books and motion pictures, radio broadcasts and lectures, valuable as they may be, cannot take the place of the face-to-face, day-to-day understanding which comes when people live together, work together, play together, and study together.

Those of us actively engaged in the facilitation of exchange of men and women between nations, if we are honest, must confess that we have little objective evidence to prove that our work over the years has helped the world. We can point to thousands of men and women who have made substantial contributions to their own countries and to

other nations because of the opportunities they have had to study in other lands. We have seen the strengthening of personal ties of friendship among thousands of individuals. We can, most importantly, point out that the numbers of persons who have had such opportunities in the past century, and even the numbers who are involved today, are pitifully small in terms of the total problems of building peace. We do need, and the Institute of International Education and other organizations are now seeking, methods to measure the effect of the exchange of students and other persons in order to improve what we are doing.

If we do not claim to guarantee peace, we can certainly document other benefits from these programs. The following are in point:

I. The individual student, United States or foreign, who has an opportunity to spend a period of serious study in another country, grows not only professionally but also in terms of his judgment and understanding of other people. It should not be necessary to point out what the tremendous resources of American colleges and universities—their libraries, laboratories, and other physical equipment—mean to the students from underprivileged countries. It is significant that approximately 20 per cent of all foreign students who come to the United States are in the field of engineering, plus substantial numbers also in the fields of medical science, physical sciences, business administration, and agriculture.

Anyone who travels about the world can easily see what this American experience has meant. One of the Institute's staff members who recently visited our selection committees in the Middle East described the thrill of discovering, in a Lebanese village, an effective hospital unit which in 1949 served some 45,000 people. A young doctor who had studied in the United States in 1945 under a grant from the United States Government and the Mayo Clinic, administered by the Institute, had almost single-handedly developed this institution. As our staff member moved into Egypt she found in a village outside of Cairo a social-welfare center which provided pre- and post-natal care and educational

activities for the people. This was developed by two young Egyptians who, with government grants, had studied at Bryn Mawr and the University of North Carolina. As our representative moved on into Damascus she found that the telephone system for the whole area had been developed by a young grantee who had spent two years in the study of engineering at Purdue University. The skills and the abilities which these individuals are putting to use in almost every corner of the world can be dramatically documented over and over again.

It is not only in the technical fields that the experience is meaningful to the individual. Thousands of foreign students are studying in the social sciences, the field in which American higher education has made its unique contribution. Men and women who are shaping the policy and building the social institutions of freedom-loving nations have, in an encouraging number of cases, learned the meaning of democracy by observing, and participating in, democracy on the American college campus.

II. The country from which the student comes obviously benefits by the skills and talents which the individual student acquires. I would emphasize that the United States gains particular advantage from American students who study abroad. We are a notoriously illiterate people in our language competence. Today, when we have accepted world-wide responsibility, the lack of men and women who can understand and use other languages handicaps not only our economic and social programs, but also our work in diplomatic negotiations. There is now, and there will be in the future, great need for substantial numbers of men and women who can communicate easily with people of every nation. As students go in growing numbers to these countries, our resources for communication will be strengthened.

III. The foreign-study experience benefits the institution and community which receive the foreign student. The enriching influence on a college campus of a substantial percentage of students from all parts of the world broadens the experience of the total student body, staff, and college community. With an in-

crease in interest in world affairs throughout the nation, these students on the campus can, through their personal contacts and participation in student and community organizations, present, as they do, to thousands of people the meaning of their own culture, their problems, and the United States' possible role in world affairs. A young Institute student from Austria, who studied and worked on newspapers on a journalism fellowship provided by the University of Michigan, a press club, and the United States Government, regularly wrote discerning articles for Michigan and Austrian newspapers, which reached more people in both countries than could any official or unofficial ambassador.

AN OVERVIEW OF PROGRAMS

Here is a brief review of the present programs, governmental and private, which assist foreign students to come to the United States and United States students to go abroad.

It should be emphasized that a very large percentage of the 30,000 foreign students now visiting the United States, as well as most of the 20,000 American students abroad, have done so through their own or family resources. This is explained in considerable part by the large groups of students from Canada. With the world-wide problems of currency transfer it is, however, encouraging but surprising that so many students from other nations have found means to secure the necessary dollar support.

A growing share of the responsibility for aid to foreign students is now properly being assumed by the United States Government. In helping cultural interchange as a part of foreign policy, we are doing what France, England, and even the Soviet Union have already found to be useful. The distinction is that in the United States we are clearly determined to utilize wherever possible the resources of private agencies.

There are three major United States governmental programs which should be well understood by all educators. In the first place, the Department of the Army and the Department of State have undertaken, as part of the reorientation program for Austria, Germany, Japan, and the Ryukyus, to provide one year of

study in the United States for carefully screened young people. During the present academic year approximately 1000 men and women from these countries, assisted through United States Government funds administered by the Institute, are enrolled in colleges and universities. The objective is to present a broad overview of American democracy in action rather than to train specialists. Educational institutions are asked to work out study programs that will contribute to such understanding and to develop opportunities within the community for observation of and participation in democratic activities. This is not easy. Many of the men and women from Germany, Austria, and Japan are highly trained specialists who desire intensive advanced studies and who are only incidentally concerned with the meaning and impact of the democratic process. Propaganda and indoctrination are not the answers, even if we as a people knew how to use such techniques effectively. It is a challenge to our campuses to find ways to show these scholars the strengths and problems of the democratic process.

The second major program of the United States Government for foreign students is provided in the Smith-Mundt Act, which authorized the expansion of our Good Neighbor cultural-exchange programs on a world-wide basis. This year, for the first time, substantial government funds have been appropriated as a part of the Campaign of Truth to provide opportunities for students, professors, leaders, and trainees from many countries. The government acknowledges that these fellowships are related to the foreign policy of the United States, but again there is no attempt to impose propaganda upon the recipients. The Institute and colleges and universities throughout the country have accepted these graduate students from abroad in fields of study of particular concern to the various countries. Universities through this means can contribute both to the development of the nations with whom we are working and to the strengthening of American foreign policy.

Third, the government has appropriated or transferred from ECA substantial sums to help the more than 3000 Chinese students who were tragically

stranded in the United States when the Communists took over that country. Our traditional close ties to the Chinese people demand such a humane act.

There is also a limited number of opportunities provided by foreign nations for their own nationals to study in the United States. In past years the governments of India, Iraq, and other countries have sent many of their best students to us. The limitation of dollars on the economy of most of the sterling bloc nations has, however, necessarily reduced what can be done. As a result, there are more calls than ever before on the educational institutions and the private organizations and associations within the United States to assist. The fellowships and scholarships, assistantships, and maintenance grants provided by colleges and universities are, as always, the fundamental basis of all study opportunities for foreign students. In recent years student organizations, particularly fraternities and sororities, have accepted a responsibility to care for foreign students in increasing numbers. To me this is a heartening sign. When American students, from their limited resources, take it upon themselves to provide room, board, and frequently spending money for a student from another nation, there is a direct personal tie which assures the beginning of real understanding between individuals. Similarly, the interest and help of countless women's clubs, service groups, churches, and a wide variety of community organizations mean that the American people, through their sense of community, have found a way to play a personal role in international affairs.

The most important recent development, so far as United States students going abroad is concerned, was the enactment by the Congress of the so-called Fulbright program, which assigns for cultural purposes the income from the sale of surplus war goods. These substantial funds are in foreign currency but practical means of using them have been worked out. The opportunities which are now available in more than 20 nations for American graduate students, school teachers, and professors represent the largest single program which any nation has ever developed. Here again the Department of State has

turned to private agencies. The Institute has been fortunate in securing the wholehearted cooperation of Fulbright committees and advisers on more than 800 campuses in the screening of candidates. We are now in the third year of the operation of this program, and the American students and professors who have had the opportunity to spend one year in a foreign university already indicate how potent this movement will be over the next 20 years.

These fellowships extend and supplement the efforts of other governments—France, Holland, Italy, Germany, Brazil, Mexico, Sweden—which have established with the Institute opportunities for American students. In addition there are private programs, notably the Rhodes Scholarships. The traditional Junior-Year-Abroad programs of Sweet Briar, Smith, Rosary, and other institutions provide opportunities for hundreds of undergraduates to spend a supervised year abroad.

The mobility of American students accounts for the hordes of young men and women who, in the summer periods, embark for intensive short experiences abroad. The National Student Association, the Salzburg Seminar, and a wide variety of reputable and other not-so-reputable groups, solicit the dollars of American students for opportunities to study during July and August of each year, particularly in western Europe. Many of these programs are clearly little more than truncated grand tours. There is evidence that the students in many cases get little out of the educational experience and in some tragic incidents even weaken the standing of the United States in the countries to which they go. It is of importance, therefore, that colleges and universities study critically all short-term programs which are presented in glowingly attractive terms to their students.

WHAT CAN YOU DO?

One of the major advantages of the exchange-of-persons program is that it provides a means by which individuals can feel that they are contributing to world understanding. The United Nations, in its handsome glass building on the East River, and the negotiation of a peace treaty with Japan usually seem far

removed from you and me. We feel that we can do little to help. But in the development of sound programs on college campuses to provide meaningful experiences for foreign students and to assist qualified American students to get a constructive educational experience abroad, we can play a part.

First, we can get ourselves thoroughly acquainted with the resources which are available for foreign students on our own campuses, and we can guide American students toward the opportunities which are now available for them to study abroad. The Institute of International Education, as the major private agency, stands ready to help you. The institution can establish and give the necessary assistance to a qualified officer to serve as counselor in this field.

Second, we can help develop on our own campuses programs of study that will fit the real needs of foreign students. The problems of a rural-school teacher who will carry out a health-education program in Nigeria differ substantially from those of a teacher in southern Illinois. This does not mean lowering the standards of our instruction. Foreign students certainly would not respect us if we did. It means rather that we must find ways to present the fundamental principles of school administration, engineering, or psychology which can be adapted to the physical and financial resources which will limit the individual when he returns home. I have heard more than one Iranian report that the student who learned in an American agricultural college in the South to construct a simple sanitary out-house contributed more to the well-being of his country than most distinguished scholars.

Third, we can open our homes and our community life to these visitors from abroad so that they can see how we live in our total social environment. The tragedy of a Japanese student in a great western university, who spent most of a year experimenting with rats in a biology laboratory, without once seeing how a public-health department and hospital cared for the citizens of a town, represents a pitiful waste. The university can, and in many cases does, extend to the foreign visitor its contacts within the community. This must be expanded

even more if we are to give to these visitors any real understanding of what kind of people we are.

Fourth, we can learn much from our foreign visitors. Men and women from cultures centuries old can be utilized in dozens of courses on our campus. Within limitations, the visitors themselves are usually delighted to serve as resource people to present personal experiences about their homelands. In addition, we can offer to the community these alert men and women who are eager to participate in programs.

Fifth, we can support the expansion of such opportunities. If we believe that face-to-face contact between peoples is one of the most promising means to build peace, we can make clear to our representatives in Congress that the United States Government is practicing wise economy when it offers opportunities or selected foreign students to come to this country and for representative young Americans to study abroad. We can, as rapidly as possible, see that the curtains which prevent students from the Russian sphere from seeing the United States in action are torn down.

CONCLUSIONS

The warmth of the expressions of the men and women who have had a foreign-study experience is one of the most rewarding aspects of the interchange of students. From starry-eyed

wonder at drugstores, skyscrapers, and electric washing machines to sobering concern about racial discrimination, inadequate housing, and other social problems of the United States, the reactions of foreign students run the gamut from comedy to tragedy. The only safe prediction is that no one can predict how any individual from any country will react to his study experience abroad.

It is probably not wise to close this survey of the interchange field with a quotation from one student. I shall never forget, however, the lines written by a young German student several months after his return home, as follows: "Since that time I cannot tell you which is really my home. Perhaps the answer would be: the world. I must admit, it probably is easier to have a little cottage in some small village corner as your home. That you can occupy completely at any one time. If you say the world is your home, however, and if it really is so, you'll never quite escape the silent pains of not being here or there or some other place right now, of not meeting this or that old friend. This kind of silent pain always walks behind you, waiting to strike you now and then. But it is a pain which keeps you from settling down and going to sleep (mentally and spiritually) right in the midst of the work which remains to be done in this world which is our home."

Chapter 15. Predicting College Enrollments in the Period of Mobilization¹

ROBERT C. STORY

United States Office of Education

IT is appropriate to begin any discussion of enrollment predictions with a word of caution. If you have kept up with the multitude of predictions which have been cropping up lately,

you have been impressed by the multiplicity of assumptions and the sparsity of data. The profound interest in the problem has led to many conferences, hours of testimony and debate in the Congress, and a general field day for statisticians. Scarcely can two or more higher-education people come together without some speculation on the "Case of the Vanishing Student." Predictions have appeared in the public print foretelling a situation next fall when only the lame, the halt, and the blind will

¹ An address presented before Group 8 of the sixth annual National Conference on Higher Education, Chicago, Illinois, April 2, 1951. Chairman of the group was The Reverend Thomas C. Donohue, S. J., Saint Louis University; consultant was Edward F. Potthoff, University of Illinois; and recorder was Elbert W. Ockerman, Morris Harvey College.

be left on the college campuses. Others have gone along nursing the fond hope that between then and now something will happen which will permit all young men who would normally go to college to do so. Neither alternative is likely. Current thinking seems to be in the direction of optimism with a growing consensus envisioning a male student loss next fall of about 20 per cent from the fall of 1950.

As a backdrop for the consideration of the problem, I think that many of you would be interested in some discussion of the legislation now before the Congress on Universal Military Training and Service.

At the time of this Conference the Senate has just passed its version of the Universal Military Training and Service Act—referred to as S.1. In the House of Representatives, the Committee on Armed Services has submitted its report to the House. As one might expect on an issue as controversial as this one, there is substantial disagreement on some points, one of which concerns the deferment of college students. I scarcely need to point out to you that in the course of legislative procedure the House Committee submission must be debated on the floor and passed by the House. A committee representing the two Houses is then appointed to iron out the differences between the House and Senate versions of the bill and come to some general agreement on provisions. The compromise must then be voted upon by both the House and the Senate before it becomes law. In the meantime the procedures set forth by the Selective-Service System govern the induction of young men aged 19-25 into the military service. Under Selective-Service regulations at present any person pursuing a full-time course of instruction at a college, university, or similar institution of learning may have his induction postponed by his local board until the end of the current academic year. In addition the President may provide for the deferment from training and service of any category or categories of students for such periods of time as he may deem appropriate.

The measure passed by the Senate (S.1) proposes to expand the pool of

draft-eligible young men by lowering the age of induction to 18. Other sections of the bill aimed at expanding the military manpower pool include the elimination of the President's authority to defer a married man who is not a veteran and whose only dependent is his wife, and the extension of certain enlistments. The bill also provides—and this is most important in its influence on the freshman class—that no 18-year-old shall be taken for service by a local board until all men in the 19-through-25-age bracket found by the local board to be available shall have been inducted. This means, of course, that, barring a sudden expansion of the military force, relatively few 18-year-olds would be inducted this year since the available manpower pool between 19 and 26 is sufficiently large to meet the proposed military expansion to a force of 3,500,000.

The Senate measure makes no change in the President's general authority to defer such categories of students as he deems necessary in the national interest. In addition the bill provides that for the next three years, until June, 1954, "75,000 men annually may be removed from active training and service to permit them to engage in study or research in medicine, dentistry, osteopathy, the sciences, engineering, the humanities, and other fields. These men will be required to complete their basic military training before entering into their study or research program, except that, depending on the date of enactment of the bill into law, some changes in this policy may be necessary for the first year. After completion of their studies, they would still have to discharge the obligation of completing their military service. This obligation would continue for a period of 10 years."

It should be pointed out that the Senate measure also provides for the deferment of students enrolled in the various R.O.T.C. programs.

How would college enrollments fare under this bill? Bear in mind the figure 2,296,000 which was the number of students enrolled in the colleges and universities in the fall of 1950. Since there is no reason to assume any marked change in the enrollment of women stu-

dents, let us first reduce the reference point by 725,000 (the number of women currently enrolled) leaving a total male enrollment of 1,500,000. This is the base figure which may be used in comparing our projections and gauging the effects of S.1 on the college population.

We should look first at what the figure might have been had we not been faced with the present emergency. Under normal conditions we could have expected at least a ten per cent drop in the male student population. This would have been the normal consequence of the oversized graduating class in the spring of 1951, coupled with a slightly smaller freshman class in the fall of 1951. Applying the estimated ten per cent drop to the male student population of the fall of 1950 would yield an expected 1,400,000 male students in the fall of 1951. You may wonder how we can ever approximate 1,400,000 male college students next fall in the face of large draft levies. If we break down the male college population into components with respect to their susceptibility to the draft a more reassuring picture begins to emerge. First, we look forward to approximately 375,000 to 400,000 veterans among those enrolled in higher education in 1951-1952. Second, I doubt if we should anticipate a reduction in the R.O.T.C. programs in which about 200,000 students are enrolled. Third, there will be between 75,000 and 100,000 students who will not meet the physical standards of the military services. This latter figure is calculated at 12 per cent of the nonveteran, non-R.O.T.C. men and is considerably below the 28 per cent which the Department of Defense estimates will be the rejection rate for 18-year-olds generally. Fourth, there are the 75,000 selected students available under S.1; finally, there are those otherwise unaffected—the over-age students, those with dependents, and divinity students. While the number in this group is not known, it could be estimated at about 100,000. If all these groups are added together, we have an assured enrollment of between 825,000 and 875,000 male students. This is still a far cry from the 1,400,000 we could have expected under normal conditions. For the 525,000 remaining potential stu-

dents who are draft eligible, there is reason to believe that not all will be taken into the service by the fall of 1951. In the first place, about 225,000 will be 18-year-olds or younger. It is exceedingly doubtful that many or any of this group will be reached before the fall sessions begin. Second—with respect to the remaining 300,000—for each draft-eligible student there are at least two draft-eligible nonstudents. With draft quotas set at 80,000 per month during the summer months, the proportion to be drawn from potential students would be 26,000 per month or 78,000 for the summer. This would leave approximately 200,000 to enroll in college next fall. Summed up, this all means that while we might have expected 1,400,000 under normal circumstances, we shall probably end up with 1.3 million male students next fall if the provisions of S.1 are adopted.

Now let us take a look at the House Committee version. From the point of view of the problem with which we are concerned, it differs from the Senate bill in two aspects: first, it fixes the minimum draft age at 18½, instead of the present 19, or 18 as provided by the Senate; second, it eliminates the provision for the special deferment of 75,000 selected students.

The 18½ induction age insures that the freshman class will be little affected since most men enter college before they have attained that age.

In deleting the provision for the specially selected students the House Committee explained: "While the committee is fully cognizant of the need to provide a minimum flow of certain types of students through our higher-education institutions, it has serious doubt as to the feasibility of a plan which might well place the military in a position of participating in the selection of those who would be deferred for college training under these special provisions for 75,000 deferred students. It is the overwhelming opinion of the committee that the deferment of students for educational purposes must be completely divorced from any military participation in the process of selection and, of necessity, determined by a civilian agency. For the

foregoing reason the committee has deleted the special provision for the deferment of 75,000 students, leaving all educational deferments for college to be determined under the general deferment authority of the President."

The report endorsed a letter prepared by General Hershey proposing a plan for the implementation of a student-deferment program. What it amounts to is a continuation of present Selective-Service regulations regarding the deferment of students in the upper levels of their classes, together with a testing program whereby students making over a certain grade on a prescribed qualification test would be allowed to enter or continue in college. This latter point is an interesting one in that it provides a "forced attrition" from college not too vastly different from what the schools might expect by way of normal attrition. For example, a freshman, under the plan, must stand in the upper one-half of the male members of his class or attain a score of 70 or more on a prescribed qualification test. Thus for the freshman class as a whole, one-half would be assured continuation through class standing while a certain proportion in the lower half of the class in a great many colleges might continue their studies by scoring higher than 70 on a test. The end result would probably be not too far from the normal attrition.

With respect to the high-school graduate who plans to enter college, the testing plan proposes that the student who has been accepted for admission to a college or university must have attained a score of 70 or more on the prescribed test in order to be deferred.

It should be pointed out that the ultimate decision on all deferments will be left up to the local draft boards. Students so deferred are not relieved of their obligation to complete their military service upon completion of their college programs.

As far as we can tell at this time, it will make little difference in the 1951 fall enrollment which measure is adopted. In the process of compromise between the two measures, some different approaches may emerge which may have totally different effects on the college

population from those we have envisioned.

Any draft program will affect different institutions differently regardless of how the law is worded. Those institutions which have large R.O.T.C. programs, substantial proportions of veterans and women, or schools of medicine or theology, will be less hard hit than the smaller liberal-arts colleges for men, and institutions with no R.O.T.C.

In addition to the inroads into the college population which will be made by the draft and by enlistments, there is the possibility that many students, otherwise unaffected, will be attracted away from school into industry by the high salaries in the expanding defense-production program.

Getting down to the actual statistics, this is what we, in the Office of Education, foresee with respect to the *male* undergraduate population in the next three years: (1) in the fall of 1951 a decline of 17 per cent from the fall of 1950; (2) in the fall of 1952 we estimate the enrollment will be 27 per cent below 1950; (3) in 1953, 33 per cent below 1950. Beyond 1953, it is expected that servicemen will begin returning to college, and enrollment will start to pick up from that point. Particularly will this be true if the provisions of the G.I. Bill are extended.

Rather than include a multitude of statistics in the body of this report, I have prepared a statistical appendix in which I have placed as much of the basic data having bearing on the problem as I have been able to obtain.

In summary, I should like to repeat that the outlook for college enrollment in the years immediately ahead is not as grim as some have pictured. Although we may look forward to reduced enrollments during the period of the build-up of the armed services, over the long haul there is every reason to believe that the number of college students will increase steadily. The American quest for education is reflected all along the line from grade school through the graduate schools. By 1960 we shall have a half-million more students graduating from high school than we have today. Assuming no higher percentage going to col-

lege than presently, this will mean freshman classes which will be upward of 600,000 students. If the pattern of universal military service becomes fixed in our social and economic structure, the

result may be a slightly older male student body than we now have, but a student body which might be more mature and better equipped to understand the meaningfulness of higher education.

MANPOWER DATA

(Sections I-IV furnished by the Department of Defense to the Senate Committee on the Armed Services in connection with S.1 hearings)

I. Status of Selective Service Registrants Age 19-26, as of October, 1950:

| | |
|--|-----------|
| 1. Total registrants | 7,957,157 |
| (a) Class I-A | 1,632,249 |
| (b) Already in service | 460,502 |
| (c) Deferred | |
| (1) Occupational and student | 763,062 |
| (2) Dependency | 1,184,893 |
| (3) Other | 71,062 |
| (d) Rejects | 799,513 |
| (e) Statutory exclusions | |
| (1) R.O.T.C. and nonveteran Reserves.... | 182,915 |
| (2) Veterans | 2,862,960 |

II. To Maintain a Strength of 3.2 Million During Fiscal Year 1952:

| | |
|---|---------|
| 1. Separations - total | 872,000 |
| (a) 21-month inductees | 103,000 |
| (b) National Guard and Reserves on 21-months duty | 351,000 |
| (c) Net terminating enlistments | 418,000 |
| 2. Accessions - total | 868,000 |
| (a) Inductions and enlistments from selective-service pool | 542,000 |
| (b) National Guard and Reserves | 86,000 |
| (c) Enlistments under age 19 | 180,000 |
| (d) Enlistments outside selective-service pool.. | 60,000 |

III. Active Duty Military Strength (Planned June 30, 1951):

| | |
|-------------------------------|-----------|
| 1. All services - total | 3,215,000 |
| (a) Regulars | 1,795,000 |
| (b) Inductees | 614,000 |
| (c) Guard and Reserves | 806,000 |

IV. Characteristic of Men Aged 18 with Respect to Draft Status:

| | |
|---|-----------|
| 1. Total number age 18 | 1,050,000 |
| (a) Rejects | 300,000 |
| (b) Already in service | 70,000 |
| (c) Dependency deferments | 10,000 |
| (d) Occupational deferments | 20,000 |
| (e) Deferred pending completion of high school | 105,000 |
| (f) Otherwise available | 545,000 |

MANPOWER DATA—(Continued)

V. Male Population 18 Years of Age 1951-1960² (in thousands):

| <i>Year</i> | <i>Number</i> |
|-------------|---------------|
| 1951..... | 1,052 |
| 1952..... | 1,041 |
| 1953..... | 1,090 |
| 1954..... | 1,117 |
| 1955..... | 1,113 |
| 1956..... | 1,165 |
| 1957..... | 1,187 |
| 1958..... | 1,186 |
| 1959..... | 1,265 |
| 1960..... | 1,365 |

² As of July 1 each year.

Source: United States Bureau of Census.

EDUCATIONAL DATA

TABLE A

Estimated Number of High-School
Graduates 1950-1960³
(in thousands)

| <i>Year</i> | <i>Estimated number of graduates</i> | | |
|--------------|--|--------------|--------------|
| | <i>Boys</i> | <i>Girls</i> | <i>Total</i> |
| 1950-1951... | 559 | 622 | 1,181 |
| 1951-1952... | 561 | 625 | 1,186 |
| 1952-1953... | 570 | 635 | 1,205 |
| 1953-1954... | 583 | 650 | 1,233 |
| 1954-1955... | 597 | 665 | 1,262 |
| 1955-1956... | 621 | 692 | 1,313 |
| 1956-1957... | 663 | 739 | 1,402 |
| 1957-1958... | 705 | 786 | 1,491 |
| 1958-1959... | 737 | 821 | 1,558 |
| 1959-1960... | 760 | 846 | 1,606 |

³ Based on 1947-1948 data. No change in the proportion of high-school graduates to the high-school population was assumed.

Source: United States Office of Education

TABLE B

Estimated Percentage Distribution of
Student Graduates from High School⁴

| <i>Age on Graduation</i> | <i>Boys</i> | <i>Girls</i> | <i>Total</i> |
|------------------------------|-------------|--------------|--------------|
| 14 or less. | .03 | .06 | .05 |
| 15..... | .71 | 1.10 | .93 |
| 16..... | 6.33 | 8.49 | 7.49 |
| 17..... | 23.05 | 27.41 | 25.39 |
| 18..... | 35.84 | 36.95 | 36.44 |
| 19..... | 23.62 | 20.01 | 21.67 |
| 20..... | 7.65 | 4.51 | 5.96 |
| 21 or over | 2.77 | 1.47 | 2.07 |

⁴ As of July 1, 1942.

Source: United States Office of Education

TABLE C
Total Enrollment in Higher-Education Institutions—1946 to 1950

| Fall of | Total Enrollment | | | First-time Students | | | Veterans | | |
|---------|------------------|---------|-----------|---------------------|---------|---------|-----------|--------|-----------|
| | Men | Women | Total | Men | Women | Total | Men | Women | Total |
| 1946 | 1,417,595 | 660,500 | 2,078,095 | 499,532 | 196,887 | 696,419 | 1,098,647 | 24,091 | 1,080,396 |
| 1947 | 1,650,249 | 678,977 | 2,338,226 | 399,972 | 192,874 | 592,846 | 1,098,647 | 24,091 | 1,122,738 |
| 1948 | 1,712,283 | 695,966 | 2,408,249 | 369,924 | 198,844 | 568,768 | 1,000,942 | 20,096 | 1,021,038 |
| 1949 | 1,728,672 | 728,169 | 2,456,841 | 357,265 | 200,591 | 557,856 | 839,958 | 16,342 | 856,300 |
| 1950 | 1,569,322 | 727,270 | 2,296,592 | 319,733 | 197,103 | 516,836 | 559,627 | 12,680 | 572,307 |

^a Breakdown not available.

Source: United States Office of Education

TABLE D
Composition of Male Student Body—Fall, 1950 (in thousands)

| Item | All Students (full and part-time) | Full-time Undergraduate Students | | | | | Part-time all levels | Graduates |
|----------------------------|-----------------------------------|----------------------------------|-------|-----|--------|-----------------|----------------------|-----------|
| | | Fresh. | Soph. | Jr. | Senior | Total Full time | | |
| Total | 1,570 | 296 | 254 | 223 | 286 | 1,059 | 351 | 160 |
| Now ^a | | 58 | 100 | 125 | 140 | 423 | | 125 |
| (Veterans— ^a | | 65 | 52 | 44 | 40 | 201 | | |
| R.O.T.C.— ^b | | 25 | 15 | 10 | 15 | 65 | | |
| Exempt (4-F — ^c | | 148 | 87 | 44 | 91 | 370 | | |
| All other — ^d | | | | | | | | |

^a Theological and healing-arts students (approximately 36,000) have not been calculated separately because of overlap in the several categories, i.e., 65 per cent of prospective M.D.'s are veterans.

Distribution of full-time undergraduate students was calculated as follows: freshmen, 28 per cent; sophomores, 24 per cent; juniors, 21 per cent; seniors, 27 per cent.

Although these data represent enrollment as of October, 1950, they may be used as an approximation of enrollment for entire academic year 1950-1951 since midyear accession will probably be cancelled by drop-outs, enlistments, and the like.

Source: United States Office of Education

TABLE E
Estimated Attrition Rates for Full-time Male Undergraduates

| Item | During year indicated | | | |
|--|-----------------------|-----------|--------|--------|
| | Freshman | Sophomore | Junior | Senior |
| Prewar rates | 30% | 20% | 7% | 4% |
| Postwar rate | | | | |
| Nonveterans | 30 | 20 | 7 | 4 |
| Veterans, W.W. II | 20 | 12 | 5 | 3 |
| Specially selected students including R.O.T.C. | 10 | 2.5 | 2.5 | 2.5 |

Source: United States Office of Education

TABLE F
Estimated Number of Students Who Would Enter College Under Normal Conditions [†]
(in thousands)

| Year | Men | Women | Total |
|-----------|-----|-------|-------|
| 1950-1951 | 257 | 193 | 450 |
| 1951-1952 | 258 | 194 | 452 |
| 1952-1953 | 262 | 197 | 459 |
| 1953-1954 | 268 | 202 | 470 |
| 1954-1955 | 275 | 206 | 481 |
| 1955-1956 | 286 | 215 | 501 |
| 1956-1957 | 305 | 229 | 534 |
| 1957-1958 | 324 | 244 | 568 |
| 1958-1959 | 339 | 255 | 594 |
| 1959-1960 | 350 | 262 | 612 |

[†] Calculated at 1950 entrance rate.

Source: United States Office of Education

Chapter 16. Adapting Institutional Organization and Administration to Mobilization Conditions ¹

DOAK S. CAMPBELL

The Florida State University

THE present program for the mobilization of our resources differs in many respects from anything we have previously experienced. The conditions that make mobilization necessary are

¹ Two addresses were presented before Group 9 of the sixth annual National Conference

on Higher Education, Chicago, Illinois, April 2, 1951, by Mr. Newsom and Mr. Campbell. Chairman of the group was Leslie W. Engler, City College of the City of New York; consultant was A. F. Arnason, North Dakota State Regents for Higher Education; and recorder was Homer L. Knight, Westminster College.

extraordinary. Formerly, our nation has mobilized on a comprehensive scale after a state of large-scale war already existed. The time schedule was "for the duration of the war," which was generally assumed to be not more than three to five years. Inflation had not descended upon us. Institutions of learning were just beginning to move ahead after the near-disastrous experiences of a decade of depression.

We now confront a different situation. We are in the midst of a giant "cold war" that is punctuated with localized but none-the-less dangerous shooting wars. We are in the midst of an inflationary spiral at the beginning of a gigantic increase of national spending and taxation. Our higher institutions, after having experienced their greatest expansion, are faced with the necessity of readjustment. The time schedule is far more indefinite than formerly. "For the duration" is thought by many to cover one or even two decades. Furthermore, the scope of mobilization has been greatly widened. In World War II we spoke of "total war," meaning that every phase of human and material resource was involved. It appears now that because of the great advance of knowledge and its application, "total mobilization" means much more than it meant just a decade ago.

We may well profit by considering some of the adjustments that were made during our previous mobilization. First and most significant was the rapid depletion of the human resources of the colleges and universities. Multitudes of the most vigorous and highly productive faculties were absorbed by military, industrial, or governmental agencies to meet their immediate needs. Instruction for the students who remained in the institutions was, in many instances, severely crippled. Basic research in many colleges and universities was practically nonexistent for a time.

The withdrawal of men students from higher institutions during World War II was rapid and well-nigh complete. The urgency of immediate full-scale war left little choice in this regard. The

giant program of readjustment under the provisions of the G.I. Bill following the war, even though remarkably well executed, left much to be desired. Before the close of the war the various armed services were calling upon the higher institutions for assistance they were incapacitated to render. Since the war the lack of adequate higher education, especially among young officers in service, has been of such concern that extraordinary measures, such as "operation bootstrap," have been devised to make up for deficiencies due to interrupted college careers.

With such experiences behind us we must face the present large-scale, long-time mobilization both for possible war and for civil defense. In facing this huge task as a nation certain fundamental considerations must guide us.

First and foremost, we must keep in mind the fundamental purposes of higher education. There is a central core of responsibility which the university must maintain, regardless of conditions that prevail at any given time. A university, whatever its peculiar character, should have the following major concerns: "the conservation of knowledge and ideas; the interpretation of knowledge and ideas; the search for truth; the training of students who will practice and 'carry on.'"² From these bases stem many and varied activities. Any adaptation of the university's activities that tends to omit these basic considerations tends also to destroy the university. It follows that any program of complete mobilization must include the mobilization of the university to perform to the utmost its basic function.

One of the greatest threats to our national security lies in the realm of knowledge, in the soundness of the ideas, the attitudes, and the purpose of our people. It seems clear that the work of the colleges and universities should be strengthened toward the achievement of solidarity among our people and their chosen leaders.

We recognize, of course, that a college or university must be responsive to the needs of the people who support it. To this end we have developed applied sciences, professional schools, and multitudes of services designed to meet specific needs. The desire and the ability

² Flexner, Abraham. *Universities, American, English, German*. Oxford University Press, New York, 1930. 381 p.

to make adjustments necessary to meet such needs distinguish American higher education from that found in many other parts of the world.

In responding to requests for adjustment to conditions required by the mobilization effort, I suggest certain criteria which may be helpful. These criteria are not inclusive. Others, no doubt, could easily be added.

First, and in my opinion foremost, a higher institution should attempt to engage in only such educational or research services as it is able to do effectively and in accord with high standards. If history repeats there will be many opportunities to use the facilities of our colleges and universities for worth-while activities that are related to mobilization. Should there be significant declines in student enrollment such opportunities will prove to be tempting. It now seems certain, however, that if our mobilization is to be orderly and thorough, there will be plenty of needs that fall well within the regular functions of our institutions.

A second consideration is that, come what may, the institution should endeavor to maintain its fundamental program and its own distinctive character. In the long run, the chief contribution will not be significantly different in most institutions from what it has been through the years. The world needs the steady influence of mature scholarship whose processes cannot be greatly accelerated without substantial loss.

It now appears that the various armed services recognize the essential value of effective teaching in basic college courses as a means of meeting their needs. Willingness to postpone military service for superior students has become more evident in recent months. This condition indicates that the higher institutions must perform a more thorough job of teaching than ever before. There may come pressures for accelerated time schedules although such pressures are not now apparent. Conditions may appropriately require flexibility in the adjustment of the time schedules of individual students without the adoption of such overall acceleration as was experienced during World War II.

It now appears also that the armed services are not planning to look to the colleges and universities for various kinds of general and specialized training such as was done previously. This should greatly reduce any pressures for overall acceleration or modification. Such special training as will be done by the higher institutions will tend to be in line with the ongoing program in a given institution.

In the field of research a prime obligation lies in the realm of basic research. Few of our institutions are qualified to engage extensively in applied research. It would seem somewhat futile, therefore, for many colleges and universities to make the adjustments that would be necessary in order to qualify for such activity. Whether an institution's facilities are great or small, it should make the necessary internal adjustments to keep its research program moving forward with soundness and vigor. Large numbers of research contracts will probably be available. The research should go forward, however, without regard to contracts with any agency.

Military training in higher institutions requires little adjustment of the regular academic program. Most of our institutions have already made these adjustments. Any changes in program that may be required as mobilization proceeds will, doubtless, be made with the total program of the trainees in mind.

The problem of adjustment to mobilization for civil defense may present some complications. We are not yet able to discuss this problem since the plan of action has not been published in detail. Suffice it to say that the same basic considerations should guide in making the necessary adjustments when their details shall have been made known.

This discussion has been concerned mainly with questions of adjustment as they may apply to higher institutions generally. It is recognized that an almost infinite number of detailed questions will be presented which each institution must answer for itself. Whatever conditions may develop, however, we have every reason to believe that American higher education will rise to the demands of our times with devotion and intelligence.

Chapter 17. Furthering Interinstitutional Cooperation¹

CARROLL V. NEWSOM

New York State Education Department

"CO-OPERATION Among Educational Institutions Spreading," so reads the title of a short news article in *School and Society* for July 15, 1950. Virtually all who are familiar with the field of higher education in this country would admit that such a statement is true. At the same time, however, a philosophy of interinstitutional cooperation still receives only limited acceptance.

In 1937, H. Y. Benedict, late President of the University of Texas, wrote: "Education, especially higher education, has pretty closely followed the competitive pathway and has been dominated by the competitive spirit—competition in education has been beneficial. But it has also been harmful, or rather wasteful, and we have arrived in education at a time when either cooperation or regulation is needed to check the waste of competition." In many instances this competitive spirit, especially in the case of neighboring colleges, dates back to rivalries and controversies that occurred when the institutions were created. Moreover, institutional rivalry may have increased through the years rather than diminished because of such factors as the competition for good students, the competitive struggle for financial support, and interinstitutional athletic competition.

Perhaps the major handicap to interinstitutional cooperation has been the pride that each American institution has in its "academic standards"; this pride is typically American. It is indeed unusual when I first meet an academic dean if he does not provide me with what he regards as incontrovertible evidence that his institution is first in the state, and perhaps in the country, in its academic

attainments. The dean of Institution A swells with pride as he tells of the large number of students, not admitted to his institution, who later showed up on the football teams of Institutions B, C, and D. Moreover, he produces letters which reveal that the graduates of his institution receive priority upon the employment lists of major businesses and industries. This institutional pride finds concrete expression when the registrar of Institution A is instructed to strike off at least ten per cent of the credits that may be transferred by students coming from Institutions B, C, and D. In recent months I have found myself unable to negotiate a cooperative agreement involving a liberal-arts college and a professional school, because the faculty members of the liberal-arts college "feared the loss of prestige" that might result if they worked with an institution of "inferior standards." A college hesitated in the development of a cooperative program with a two-year technical institute, even though, in general, the selectivity of students in the technical institute, the caliber of faculty, and the equipment were all superior to those to be found in the college; the argument against cooperation presented by the college referred to standards in the institute, not to course content.

I am quite convinced that as a prerequisite to greater interinstitutional cooperation institutions must recognize the paucity of evidence of substantial variation in student accomplishment in most of the so-called approved institutions of higher learning in any particular area.

In the State of New York there is a long tradition of cooperative effort on the part of our colleges and universities. The Board of Regents of the State of New York is unique among the authorities which govern state educational systems; it traces its history back to the first session of the state legislature after the Revolutionary War. At that time a bill was introduced to establish a broad system of education, modeled and controlled by an over-all corporate agency,

¹ Two addresses were presented before Group 9 of the sixth annual National Conference on Higher Education, Chicago, Illinois, April 2, 1951, by Mr. Campbell and Mr. Newsom. Chairman of the group was Leslie W. Engler, City College of the City of New York; consultant was A. F. Armason, North Dakota State Regents for Higher Education; and recorder was Homer L. Knight, Westminster College.

the University of the State of New York. The term "university" referred not to a single institution of learning, but rather to a unified and widely inclusive sort of educational holding company which would embrace all the academies and colleges within the state. The bill creating the University of the State of New York, originally passed in 1784 and then modified in 1787, permitted individual colleges within its structure to have corporate rights, granted in most instances by the Regents, but the Board of Regents, the head of the University of the State of New York, was the regulatory, supervisory, and policy-forming body for the state in the educational field. For a century and a half, therefore, all the colleges and universities of the state, both public and private, have worked in an exceptional spirit of unity. The state has actually created professional schools in conjunction with private universities; the state schools contract for services from the private institution with which they are associated, and *vice versa*.

At the present time the Division of Higher Education within the State Education Department follows closely the need for the development of new curricula. An institution in one section of the state may be discouraged from creating a program in physical education, for example, if the facilities of other institutions in the area appear to be adequate for the demand. Conferences are arranged frequently between officials of neighboring institutions, during which specialized programs are apportioned between the two schools upon a mutually satisfactory basis. In fact, the unnecessary duplication of educational programs has received major attention from departmental officials. The State Association of Colleges and Universities maintains a full-time secretary in Albany, who is in continual contact with the program of the Department; many major policy questions involving the colleges and universities of the state are resolved through joint effort on the part of the State College Association and the Department.

In addition to this continuing program of activity, there are presently under way in New York two developments of major significance. First, preliminary

studies are being made in regard to the possibility of integrating many aspects of the work of the institutional libraries about the State Library as a central unit. The State Library of a million and a half volumes is very well adapted to a type of centralized service that would have genuine significance to the college and university libraries of the state. Second, through the medium of the State Science Service, which operates within the framework of the State Department of Education, a program of cooperation between the institutions is being developed in the area of scientific research. Briefly, we are moving in the direction of a State Science Foundation, modeled somewhat after the newly created National Science Foundation, that would unify the research program in the state.

Interinstitutional cooperation may take a great variety of forms. A rather obvious form of cooperation on the undergraduate level involves an agreement between two institutions whereby a student may start his college study in one institution but will complete the requirements for a degree in some specialized area in the second institution; usually the second institution provides a type of major program not offered in the first. It is especially urgent that agreements of this type be developed between the two-year institutions, which are becoming increasingly common in this country, and various liberal-arts colleges and technical schools. There is little reason why a student should not take a specified two-year program in a community college and then be able to complete the requirements for a degree in a reputable liberal-arts college or engineering school with little or no loss of credit.

For many years the Massachusetts Institute of Technology has had a very satisfactory agreement with a number of liberal-arts colleges which permits a student to go to one of the designated colleges for two years, after which he may transfer to the Institute without loss of time to complete his study in a technical area. Somewhat similar agreements have been concluded between certain liberal-arts colleges and such well-known technical schools as the Case Institute of Technology, Rensselaer Polytechnic Institute, Illinois Institute of

Technology, and the Carnegie Institute of Technology. Such agreements have proved to be satisfactory, and are of mutual advantage to participating students and to the institutions. In fact, the bilateral agreement between institutions represents a type of cooperation that will strengthen considerably our national program of education if worked out systematically by many of our colleges and universities.

In no field is there greater need for cooperative effort than in the area of teacher education. The great majority of colleges are now providing programs in teacher education, especially in secondary education, although, in general, the demand for secondary teachers does not justify the large number of teacher-education programs now in existence. The typical course of study offered in a liberal-arts college involves a minimum number of courses in professional education, superimposed upon a traditional program of study; there is no synthesis of effort between the teachers of the liberal-arts subjects and those who teach the courses in professional education. The net effect is one that disturbs many scholars in the field, and is partially responsible for some major problems that exist in the programs of our public schools, especially on the secondary level. A genuine teacher-education program requires the creation of a specialized curriculum and the employment of a number of specially trained staff members, both of which most liberal-arts colleges are unable to afford or to justify in terms of student demand. I should like to advocate that more bilateral agreements be concluded between liberal-arts colleges and the professional schools that have been created especially to provide courses in teacher preparation.

There are many types of cooperative effort that require the support of several institutions in the maintenance of a single program. The New York State School of Industrial and Labor Relations, a unit of the State University of New York, sponsors a statewide program of adult education in the general area of industrial and labor relations. The instructors in most communities are drawn from colleges or other organizations in the respective localities; even with such a diversity of staff the total

state program possesses a unity of purpose that reflects the excellent administration that is provided by the central staff. In the field of adult education, generally, there are many opportunities for the pooling of institutional resources in order that an adequate program can be designed.

I have noted with concern the lack of recognition of institutional resources in this country in the creation of a state and national program of civilian defense and national security. Being a scientist by training, I find myself continually amazed by instructions to civilian-defense workers that are based on a false understanding of the atomic bomb and atomic radiation; virtually every college and university could supply a well-trained physicist to provide civilians the necessary background material. Essentially the same statement could be made about structural problems arising in connection with the designation and construction of bomb shelters; engineering schools have experts in such an area. The international political situation is a puzzle to all of us; nevertheless, there are facts involved that American citizens must understand. I regret to say, however, that I see no unusual demands at the present time on our college and university experts in the field of international relations. Truly this is a time when our colleges should be called upon to sponsor cooperatively a program of background studies in connection with the present emergency. Perhaps college administrators must take more of the initiative.

A virgin field of cooperation is to be found in connection with the development of educational programs on the radio and on television. It is doubtful that there can be any real progress in the use of these mediums for educational purposes until there is state or regional institutional cooperation in the creation of programs and until there is some government financial support for the effort.

It is now accepted generally that not every state needs to create facilities for the training of students in all the common professional areas; this premise leads to a consideration of regional cooperative programs. The best-known example of regional interinstitutional

cooperation in the sponsorship of professional educational curricula is to be found in the Southeast. The procedure in that area has been formalized by the creation of the Board of Control for Southern Regional Education, which is composed of the governor and three citizens of each of the 14 southern states involved. The plan for regional education that was inaugurated in October, 1947, has, up to the present time, given special attention to cooperative effort in the fields of medicine, dentistry, and veterinary medicine. Several institutions within the 14-state area have been designated as regional schools in these professional fields. The actual plan of operation, as it relates to students from Florida, for example, has been explained by John S. Allen,² as follows: "For each Florida student who attends a regional school of medicine or dentistry under the auspices of the Regional Board of Control, the State of Florida will pay a sum of \$1500 to the school to help defray overhead and operating costs. For each veterinary student under this plan the state will pay the school \$1000 to help cover its costs. The regional school then becomes an agency of the State of Florida for higher education. The Florida students will then be placed in the same category as students who are legal residents of the state in which the school is located. They will be required to pay the usual tuition, fees, board, room, and other expenses charged by the institution to students residing in that state."

The State of Florida has created a screening committee to ascertain those Florida students who should be certified for admission to a regional school. The certifying committee then submits the list of eligible students to the Regional Board of Control and to each of the regional professional schools, but a regional school makes the final decision on the admission of any particular student.

A somewhat similar regional plan has been accepted in principle by six New England land-grant colleges and universities. Cooperative planning is contemplated in such fields as medicine,

nursing, dentistry, veterinary medicine, forestry, landscape architecture, law, pharmacy, social service, government service, and journalism. In the Rocky Mountain area, New Mexico, and Wyoming have developed working agreements with the University of Colorado School of Medicine whereby five students each from New Mexico and Wyoming, which do not have colleges of medicine, will be admitted to the University of Colorado School of Medicine.

A major opportunity for interinstitutional cooperation exists in connection with the effective and economical utilization of library resources. No elaborate mathematical calculation is required to determine that present trends in the expansion of storage space for books, as well as the necessary staff to process the books, can lead us to an impossible situation within a short time. Already librarians and institutional officials find themselves in a serious plight on virtually every campus. It seems apparent to me that a college or university must determine an upper limit to the size of the storage space that it expects to maintain for its library collection; to stay within this limit will require the adoption of a philosophy of equilibrium, that is, there must be a balance between the new material introduced into the collection and the material that is destroyed, placed in some central storage facility, or is transferred to a medium that requires less storage space.

We are all familiar with the partial solution of the various library problems to be provided by the newly created Midwest Inter-Library Center, located in Chicago. This project was initiated some three years ago when the presidents of certain major midwestern universities approved a project, financed by the Carnegie Corporation of New York, to survey the needs and study the possibility of a regional, cooperative storage library. As a result of this study, the Midwest Inter-Library Corporation was created in 1949, and a million-dollar capital fund came into existence through gifts from the Carnegie Corporation and the Rockefeller Foundation. A building to house 3,000,000 volumes is now under construction. In addition to the storage space contained in the struc-

² Allen, John S. "Procedures in Florida for Southern Regional Education." *School and Society* 70:279-280; October 29, 1949.

ture, there will be study cubicles for research scholars, facilities for reproduction of materials, and microfilm and microcard reading rooms

The functions of the new corporation have been described by Reuben S. Frodin³ as follows:

1. To establish and to maintain a Midwest Inter-Library Center for the cooperative custody, organization, housing, servicing (and for some materials, ownership), of little-used research materials. The center will constitute essentially a collection of little-used research materials placed on indefinite loan in its custody, and available on inter-library loan to member institutions under the terms established by the board of directors.

2. To serve as an agency for encouraging and implementing coordination of collecting policies for specialized fields, among the co-operating libraries. The corporation through its officers and the director of the Inter-Library Center, will encourage libraries to define their acquisition policies in special fields, will make known to the participating institutions these selections, and will attempt to encourage further selection and definition to the end that libraries in the Midwest may provide more adequately and with less duplication for the research needs of the Middle West.

3. To serve as an agency to explore the possibilities for cooperative bibliographical services among the member institutions.

³ Frodin, Reuben S. "The Midwest Inter-Library Corporation." *American Library Association Bulletin* 43:170-172; May, 1949.

I think it is admitted generally that such a central library as is envisaged does not solve all the problems in the library field. In fact, some new problems are created, such as the fact that research materials may not be available immediately to a scholar when they are needed. In view of the rapid technological developments that are now taking place in the field of communication, it appears that such difficulties can be resolved in the years ahead. Certainly the Midwest Inter-Library Center is a most important pioneering effort in interinstitutional cooperation, and its experience will reveal the direction of new projects that should be undertaken.

The possible expansion of cooperative efforts in the field of higher education should demand the attention of all administrative officials in our colleges and universities, and especially of existing state, regional, and national educational associations. It is probable that some of the economic problems now facing American institutions can be resolved through cooperative endeavor. Moreover, it seems undeniable that stronger academic programs should be possible through well-considered efforts that would pool the human and physical resources of many of our colleges and universities.

Chapter 18. Developing Sound Acceleration Procedures¹

SIDNEY L. PRESSEY

The Ohio State University

YOUNG people planning collegiate and perhaps professional or technical training are again asking whether educational acceleration might somewhat compensate for years which seem likely to be taken by military training or service. President Conant of Harvard, in

his last annual report, says, "If the nation is now entering a long period of austerity, of mobilization, the question may well be raised, should we not shorten the roads that lead to a profession?" An earlier president of Harvard (Mr. Lowell) declared that "disease and death are not postponed because a man starts upon the practice of his profession a year or two later than is necessary. His period of active life, his achievements, and his usefulness are simply curtailed to that extent. . . . Much has been said about maturity, but that is the result less of age than of environment and responsibility. Maturity

¹ An address presented before Group 10 of the sixth annual National Conference on Higher Education, Chicago, Illinois, April 2, 1951. Chairman of the group was P. C. Gaines, Montana State College; consultant was Arthur H. Hughes, Trinity College; and recorder was Arthur H. Price, State Teachers College, Wayne, Nebraska.

may easily become overripe."² Discussions during and immediately after the last war emphasized the difficulties and inadequacies of the accelerated programs of that time, which consisted primarily of extensions of the school year. But a review of the whole issue now seems called for.

IS THERE JUSTIFICATION FOR ACCELERATION?

Presumably, after two years of military service a large portion of the young people then contemplating college will wish to save time. Before the war, the average young man graduating from college was almost 23; 25 will seem late. But usually it is several years after graduating before a young man feels that he is in a position to marry and take his place in the adult community; before the war the average young man married at 25, but college graduates at 28. Further delay of possibly two more years would hardly be favored. Delay in start of career would seem especially serious for those young men who contemplate not only collegiate but also graduate or professional training. Technical and professional education has tended to extend further into the adult years here than in other countries; before the war the doctorate was on the average obtained in Germany about five years earlier than in this country.

A variety of evidence appears to support the impatience of young people at delays in their getting started in careers.

² Lowell, A. L. *At War with Academic Traditions in America*, p. 245. Harvard University Press, Cambridge, Massachusetts, 1934.

³ Perhaps especially relevant here are two of Harvey Christian Lehman's papers: "Young Thinkers and Great Achievements," *Journal of Genetic Psychology*, 1949, pp. 74; 245-271; and "Age of Starting to Contribute Versus Total Creative Output," *Journal of Applied Psychology*, Vol. 30, No. 5, October, 1946. A review of such material, and of previous research on acceleration, with much additional data, will be found in a monograph by the writer: *Educational Acceleration: Appraisals and Basic Problems*; The Ohio State University, Columbus, 1949. 153 p. Such considerations also appear to argue for the deferment of able students recently provided by President Truman, and for scholarships for able, needy students, to get them into their productive careers promptly.

Medical anthropometric and athletic data agree that greatest physical vigor and health come in the 20's. The investigations of Harvey Lehman have shown that superior creative work tends to be done early in adult life, and that men who begin their careers early are more likely both to do distinguished work and to continue to be productive. If full-time education is continued into these potentially most productive years, there might seem danger that total productivity of our ablest young people might be curtailed, and greatest creativity possibly not attained. If other countries (as Russia) got their most brilliant young people into productivity earlier, they might gain a strategic advantage thereby.³ In view of the above considerations, it seems desirable to inquire whether some time-saving might be achieved, at least for our ablest young people, without all the difficulties involved in such programs during World War II.

WHAT SHOULD BE INCLUDED IN AN ADEQUATE PROGRAM OF ACCELERATION?

Three requirements for satisfactory acceleration seem especially important: (1) Students considering acceleration should be screened to eliminate the less able and the emotionally and mentally immature, or without serious purpose. (2) Programs should not be so unremitting or intensive as to be unfortunately burdensome or exhausting for faculty or students. (3) There should be such guidance and counseling, maturity of content and method of instruction, and broad programming that students obtain not merely an intensive academic training but a total enriching and maturing experience. These last two requirements evidently imply that the lengthened school year should *not* be the only means of acceleration.

WHAT OTHER MEANS MAY BE USED?

Precollege acceleration. The colleges may find certain entering students already accelerated. As a result of favorable research findings, and now under the pressure of events, some secondary and elementary schools are becoming more favorable toward acceleration of superior students. Early studies in various colleges and universities showed

that young entrants made better academic records in college than those entering at average or older ages, were more likely to continue in school and graduate, participated about as much in academic activities, and presented fewer disciplinary problems. The late Noel Keys⁴ found that students who entered the University of California under 16 years, six months in age did well academically, usually adjusted satisfactorily to college life, and did well after graduation. Accelerates seemed to do better than nonaccelerates of the same ability. Lewis Terman⁵ reports regarding his famous gifted group that "the accelerates made a decidedly better record than the nonaccelerates." The most accelerated (who graduated from high school at an average age of 14.9 and from college at 19.9) were in ability initially only slightly superior to the remainder of that group. However, they not only did well in college and adjusted well there, but much more often were highly successful vocationally.

In the *Guidance Newsletter* for February, 1951, Lyle Spencer states that: "Gifted children probably constitute the most retarded group in our schools today, and in many respects the most neglected. . . . Because children with IQ's above 140 learn so much more rapidly than others, probably half their time in school is wasted. Probably nearly all the time of those with IQ's above 170 is wasted. . . . Within limits, promoting students one or two grades beyond their own age group has generally worked out satisfactorily. Little evidence has been found that this acceleration produces social maladjustments for bright children, provided that they are not advanced too far or too fast. A good rule of thumb is that smart youngsters prepared to enter college at the age of 16 have not been accelerated too much." Some early entrants may be emotionally and intellectually immature, or socially maladjusted. But proper selection and guidance, and methods such

as special sections which help the youngster adjust as he accelerates, can usually bring about precollege acceleration without handicaps.

Obviously, if the secondary schools send the colleges bright youngsters at the age of 16 or 17, a start in a college program can be made before draft age is reached. However, this Conference is presumably more concerned with acceleration in college than before. Suppose a young man comes to a college, either after military service or before, wishing to accelerate. What might desirably be done? The first step (desirable for every student) should be to obtain an appraisal of his ability, preparation, and his total experience to date. Tests of general ability or academic aptitude are now very commonly given to all entering students. Preparation may be checked by placement tests in such first-year subjects as English, mathematics, foreign language, or science. These may be tests prepared locally, or by such agencies as the Educational Testing Service or the United States Armed Services Institute. Many indications as to over-all maturity should appear in the total record or application form. An applicant who has gotten himself jobs summers, traveled about some, been active and often a leader in high-school affairs, and who also has a good secondary-school academic record and high scores on a test of general ability and the placement tests, seems a good risk for acceleration.

Credit by examination as a means of acceleration. If such a student scores on a placement test so high that he appears already to have reached the competency which the first college course in that subject is supposed to develop, then the question may be raised as to whether (on the basis of that test, perhaps supplemented by further examining) he might properly be given credit for that course. This is a regular practice in many institutions. At The Ohio State University, students scoring in the top 12 per cent on the English Placement Test are given credit for the first course in English composition. A somewhat similar practice is followed in chemistry, modern foreign language, and some other departments. As much as 30 hours or two quarters of credit may thus be obtained. So much is rare, but some

⁴ Keys, Noel. *The Underage Student in High School and College*. University of California Press, Berkeley, 1938.

⁵ Terman, Lewis M., and Oden, Melita H. *The Gifted Child Grows Up*. Stanford University Press, Stanford University, California, 1947.

is common. It is part of the regular procedure at the University of Chicago. Substantial overlap between the last years of secondary school and the first year of college is generally recognized. Credit by examination avoids that, and gives a stimulating initial quick start into acceleration.

IS SUCH CREDIT SOUND?

The Ohio State University Department of Chemistry has found that those who passed the first course of a three-quarter sequence by examination made much better grades in the second course than those who had actually taken the first course. Another state university reported that students who, after passing a course by examination, took further work in that subject, almost always did well. The general academic records of students obtaining examination credit have been found good; students were not, by such crediting, being moved ahead into work for which they were not prepared. Nor did the students so credited report any handicap in more advanced work; some superior students did complain that certain faculty members had either refused examinations or made them unreasonably difficult and so forced the taking of a course which was found to cover ground already bore-somely familiar. Larger values were also reported. Good students were thus encouraged. Better work in high school was stimulated. High-school teachers whose pupils were thus recognized were stimulated to better teaching, and good college-school relations were fostered.

Acceleration by "extra" work. A number of studies are unanimous as showing that (presumably in part because of such caution that only very superior students are permitted extra work) those who take heavy schedules make better-than-average academic records; and the heavier the course load, the better the average grades! The writer has found not only better grades with progressively heavier schedules but also more participation in extra-curricular activities. Apparently, it is the more able and energetic students who take extra work. And their abilities and energies show in all these various respects. With careful guidance to avoid injudiciously heavy schedules (perhaps

at the same time that a student is working part time) considerably more use of the heavy schedule for acceleration should be possible.

Honors courses or programs as an aid in acceleration. Over the last 25 years substantial interest has appeared in honors programs of various types, involving considerable independent work, and seminars, or intensive small discussion-group meetings for superior students. Something of this sort has been tried in a number of institutions. At The Ohio State University, an accelerated-seminar section of a large course in psychology has been tried several times. Extra reading was expected. The group met one very informal evening-seminar session a week (often beginning with dinner together) instead of the usual one hour five days a week. There were frequent individual conferences. The instructor chosen was especially able in such work. On objective mid-terms and finals, 65 per cent of the "seminar" students made A or B as compared with 28 per cent of regular sections and 49 per cent of cases in the regular section who were paired with the accelerates as to ability at entrance, previous academic record, and type of program. The students reported the seminar to be stimulating; the participating instructors spoke of the liveliness of the discussion, and informal friendly relations with the students. Many of the students used the slight savings of class time as an opportunity to take an added course (median course load was 18 hours). None believed health had suffered, or participation in activities prevented. Other institutions have also reported favorably; one tells of an increase of students going on to advanced work in the subject. Combination of two sequential courses into one, for superior students, has also been found to save time and give integration and superior work. A tutorial system may foster independent study so as to aid acceleration.

Off-campus work and acceleration. In the well-known Harvard report on *General Education in a Free Society*, the following statement appears: "It is probably true that many of our students could be brought to a more mature level of intellectual and emotional understand-

ing at a somewhat earlier age, but this can be accomplished by the provision of more adult materials for study, by more rigorous standards, by a richer experience in extra-curricular activities, and even more, by work or travel or other pursuits undertaken entirely away from college, rather than by any such specious device as is involved in a slight increase in the length of the college year or in the number of courses taken. . . . There are students, and there are circumstances, for whom and under which a three-year degree should be made possible."⁶

If undertakings entirely away from college are educationally so important, it would seem that institutions should take some responsibility for their being obtained. Some do—Antioch in its work program, and schools of engineering in field trips and summer camps. At The Ohio State University, the College of Education gives credit for field experience such as serving as counselor in a summer camp. Such work is planned in advance as part of the total program; after it is over, it is discussed in small groups so that its significance may be fully developed. The suggestion is ventured that colleges should provide means by which such broadening and maturing experiences may be obtained, and assure that they are.

Acceleration by lengthened school year. To emphasize other possibilities, this most common method has been reserved for last mention. It has been most criticized. It may seriously burden an over-worked faculty; a major requirement of any such program is that the staff be protected from exhaustion. The less-able student may become increasingly fatigued; the youngster of limited experience may be held to the campus when a summer job or travel would be more desirable. Good students of some maturity and experience, however, may suffer in neither respect. A healthy young American returned from two years in the armed forces may welcome the opportunity to move steadily toward the completion of his education. With

three or four weeks' vacation in September and perhaps two weeks at Christmas, also several days at Thanksgiving, Easter, and in June, the situation may not seem to him too unremitting. At The Ohio State University some students complained of the extended year, but others considered it desirably business-like. Students completing a four-year program in three calendar years or less, mostly in four-quarter attendance, were found to have done consistently better academically (perhaps in large part because of stronger motivation) than others paired with them as of the same ability as tested at entrance, entering at the same time, of the same sex, and in the same general program. Also, the accelerates participated in campus life about as much. A brief follow-up, after graduation, showed a slight accelerate superiority in after-school career. Students in an accelerated program under guidance from the college office not only did better academically and participated in activities as much as non-accelerating cases of equal ability; more of them graduated.

The need for guidance, flexible curricula, and superior teaching. Wise choice of students to be accelerated, and of various means of acceleration, requires an adequate-guidance program. Flexible curricula are necessary, if students are to move ahead at widely differing rates. A shortened program makes good teaching especially important. If enrollments drop, it may be easier to staff guidance programs, small classes for superior students, and guided independent study facilitating acceleration. To the institution of imagination and enterprise, accelerated programs may offer opportunity for desirable advances in such directions.

THE EDUCATIONAL OPPORTUNITIES OF THE PRESENT SITUATION

American industry did not meet the needs of the last war primarily by lengthening the work year, but rather by developing ingenious new devices and methods, which greatly increased efficiency. American education should also meet crises with resourcefulness and ingenuity. The lengthened school year by itself is inadequate. Discriminating pro-

⁶ Committee on the Objectives of General Education in a Free Society, Harvard University. *General Education in a Free Society*, pp. 193-194. Harvard University Press, Cambridge, Massachusetts, 1945.

grams of selection and guidance, and various methods of "acceleration," might, however, bring marked increases in educational efficiency, and at the same time progressively select our ablest young

people and bring them more quickly into usefulness. All students might thus be more discriminatingly and effectively served, and the national effectiveness increased.

Chapter 19. Campus Military Programs¹

J. J. O'DONNELL, *Captain, USN*

Department of Defense

IT augurs well for the success of both the educational and the military objectives of the United States when both educators and military men invite to so many of their respective conferences representatives of the other professions. The mutual understanding thus engendered regarding each other's problems and the means of solving them is productive of much good. Indeed, the welfare of the youth of this country, as well as the welfare of the country itself, demands that educators and military planners get together whenever policy and plans for the extensive training of youth are to be discussed. The most effective training of youth can be accomplished today only when the schools and the military services each takes full cognizance of the role the other plays in the development of this our most precious national asset, our youth.

The heavy burden of defense placed upon our young men must be lightened wherever possible by the wisest utilization of their preparatory years. Years lost to our youth are years lost to the nation; their loss inevitably drags down our national standard of living and saps our strength. It is therefore up to us who are responsible for youths' civil and military education to coordinate this education carefully in order to eliminate ineffective units, gaps, duplications, and

units which are at cross-purposes with each other. It is likewise important that we make as efficient use as possible of our educational plants, whether they be college campuses or military-training camps, and of our instructional staffs, whether on field or campus.

Needless to say, I am very pleased to meet with this distinguished group of educators in order to discuss with you an educational problem which is of utmost concern to both of us, namely, "Campus Military Programs." I hope what we learn from each other will be of mutual benefit to our programs, will benefit our youth, and will further the educational and military aims of the United States.

Educators are asking, "What changes may be expected in military programs now conducted on college and university campuses? Will the number of R.O.T.C. and N.R.O.T.C. units be increased? What criteria are important in the selection of collegiate institutions for military training? Are there additional ways in which civilian institutions of higher learning can assist in military training during the national emergency?" In short, educators would like to know to what extent the armed forces of the United States are planning to use civilian educational facilities in the present emergency. I shall attempt to give you answers to some of these questions.

In the eyes of the armed forces, the most important of the campus military programs are the reserve-officer-training programs of the Army, Navy, and Air Force. Their importance stems from several considerations: These programs have been thoroughly worked out in co-operation with educators over several decades, and their results have been proved in time of war. They produce

¹ An address presented before Group 11 of the sixth annual National Conference on Higher Education, Chicago, Illinois, April 2, 1951. Chairman of the group was G. D. Humphrey, University of Wyoming; consultants were W. A. Knapp, Purdue University, and William J. McGlothlin, Board of Control for Southern Regional Education; consultant on public relations was T. R. Johnston, Purdue University; and recorder was Donald J. Robertson, University of North Dakota.

a relatively large number of high-level personnel, educationally qualified for junior-officer status. They are sufficiently flexible to adapt to the changing requirements of the services.

The present situation with regard to these programs should be of interest to educators. The Army is now operating 481 R.O.T.C. units in 235 colleges and universities, including 36 new units. Whereas certain colleges have but one Army unit, others may have two or more units in different specialties, such as engineering, field artillery, infantry, or medicine. At the beginning of the 1950-1951 school year the Army had more than 123,000 college students enrolled in R.O.T.C.

The Navy currently has 52 N.R.O.T.C. units in operation at as many colleges and universities. There are nearly 13,000 college men enrolled in N.R.O.T.C. programs as of the present academic year. The Marine Corps also obtains junior officers from this program. The number of enrollees could be increased sufficiently at the 52 units now in operation to take care of Navy requirements even in the event of considerably increased needs.

The Air Force now has 125 AF R.O.T.C. units at as many different institutions, and these units have enrolled in R.O.T.C. work at the present time more than 62,000 college students. The Air Force is presently selecting institutions at which to locate 62 additional AF R.O.T.C. units from among some 600 institutions which submitted applications for such units. The deadline for submission of these applications was February 16, 1951.

Although the services are not contemplating further augmentation of R.O.T.C. units at the present time, I shall give you an idea of the criteria set up for the selection of R.O.T.C. institutions, since this is a question frequently asked by school administrators. Also, one cannot rule out the remote possibility that present estimates for the need of new R.O.T.C. units might have to be revised upward in the event of very heavy mobilization requirements. Each service differs somewhat from the other in its specifications, but the following points will give an idea of the basic factors considered: the accreditation

status of the institution, the curricula it offers, suitability and adequacy of facilities available for a military department, the credit granted toward a degree for military training on the campus, whether military training will be required or elective, the number of male students enrolled, the attitude of the faculty and student body toward military training on the campus, how the institution would fit into the geographic distribution of present R.O.T.C. units.

Before turning from the matter of R.O.T.C. programs of the Army, Navy, and Air Force, I desire to dwell briefly on the Navy's subsidized N.R.O.T.C. program which is one part of what is commonly known as the Holloway plan. At present this plan provides for the appointment of approximately 2000 midshipmen, U.S.N.R., annually, but an elaboration of the plan which would apply also to the Army and the Air Force has recently been proposed to Congress by the Department of Defense. Under the proposal, students selected for this program would have to serve an initial four-month period of basic military training under the proposed universal service and training program. Then, following graduation from college, they would serve on active duty for one year more than would be required of non-subsidized R.O.T.C. graduates. For those who may not be familiar with the present Holloway plan, let me say that candidates are rigorously screened mentally, physically, and by interview. If selected, they are then subsidized to the extent of uniforms, tuition, textbooks, and fees, plus retainer pay at the rate of \$50 per month through four years of college work.

The Marine Corps has another campus program, the platoon leaders school. This deserves mention because the Navy has borrowed the plan for its Reserve Officer Candidate School, and because educators have inquired whether the Army and Air Force may be contemplating similar programs. These plans operate in collegiate institutions which do not have R.O.T.C. units appropriate to the service concerned. The student must be an enlisted member of the Reserve during his training period. He must meet physical, mental, and leadership qualifications, and must attend two six-

week summer camps. Successful enrollees are given Reserve commissions upon receiving their baccalaureate degrees, or upon completing the military program if that program was incomplete at the time of college graduation.

Similar programs for the Army and Air Force have not gone beyond the study stage, hence there is no likelihood of their being adopted in the near future, if at all. Both the Army and the Air Force, however, have officer-candidate schools, toward which men who are not enrolled in R.O.T.C. units can aim while attending college. These college men may join the local Enlisted Reserve or National Guard units and upon graduation from college, their combined training would place them in a favored position to succeed at officer-candidate schools.

In addition to the more fixed military programs mentioned above, there are several additional plans through which colleges and universities may assist in the training of military personnel. Normally this training takes the form of instruction in specialized civilian-type knowledge or skills which are of particular value to the military. Regulations governing these plans change from time to time depending upon tightness of the personnel situation, need for the skills involved, and availability of funds. Usually the plans apply only to commissioned officers, relate to graduate work, are on a full-time basis, and extend over a period of a year or more. Following the last war and prior to the Korean, however, many recently integrated officers whose fighting skill was beyond question but whose academic careers had been interrupted by the war, were permitted to work toward a baccalaureate degree. Most of this program has been interrupted owing to the present partial mobilization.

As might be expected, work on specialized technical-training projects has not been curtailed since many of these projects are more pressing today than during periods of comparative calm. In fact, college-training courses for military personnel on active duty, in specialties of direct value to the military, may involve as many as 50,000 men a year. It should be pointed out, however, that this is a tentative figure and includes many who are already included in this program.

Before terminating this brief account of existing campus programs, I must mention the one with which I have been directly identified for the past few years. I refer to the Armed Forces Education Program, with its many operational programs in the Army, Navy, Air Force, and Marine Corps. Although this program offers and promotes courses at every academic level, we are concerned here primarily with the ways in which colleges can cooperate. If your institution is located near a military installation, and that may mean up to 50 miles or so if there is no closer college, you might contact the information and education officer there to discuss what courses your staff might offer for military personnel.

Regulations regarding such a program are made very flexible in order to allow for the greatest variation in local situations. The classes may be held on the campus for both military and civilian personnel, or exclusively for military personnel. Most classes must be offered during off-duty hours, since courses are seldom so critical in relation to the success of the commander's mission as to justify his authorizing classes during duty time. Under the present build-up there is less need for assistance from the colleges in this education program than later when most of the recruits will have been trained. No time need be lost, however, in setting up one or more pilot classes, for the American serviceman is surprisingly well disposed toward voluntary educational opportunities, and he has almost limitless energy.

Colleges located farther from military camps will find little opportunity to assist in the armed-forces education program. It is true that as part of this plan 45 colleges and universities now cooperate in offering about 6000 correspondence courses in perhaps 500 subjects through the United States Armed Forces Institute. Servicemen may enroll for these courses at approximately half price, since the government pays for the lesson service. Opportunities for expansion in this part of the program, however, are limited.

Let us now pass from campus military programs which are currently in operation to others which may come

into being through plans now in a formative stage or through new legislation. It is probable that some service personnel may be assigned to language and area studies in civilian schools. As a matter of fact, a limited number of persons in uniform are already attending such schools. Many higher institutions now have departments covering this work. The area training normally includes intensive language, general background, research, and specialized courses. The number of men to be trained at civilian institutions will be small, since language and area work can be handled, for the most part, by the language schools of the various armed services.

A program still to be worked out, since it is tied in with proposed legislation, is one dealing with the sending to college of possibly 75,000 carefully selected inductees annually for 1951, 1952, and 1953. These men would be sent to college only after they have completed four months of basic military training. This program, if enacted, may involve up to 225,000 different men and 900,000 man-years of college work over a span of six years, with the peak load during the academic years beginning in 1953 and 1954. It will require the closest coordination between the schools and the military. Other matters of great interest to educators as well as to military people are deferment regulations governing present and prospective college students. These plans will involve even larger numbers of men and student-years. The operation of all of these programs in such a way as to bring about the greatest good for both the men affected and the nation will require constant cooperation between the schools and the armed forces.

Educators have asked if there may not be further programs in addition to those in use and those under proposal which might be worked out so as to bring the colleges into fuller participation in the training of youth for national defense. It is my candid opinion that when the present and projected campus military programs become fully operative, the colleges will be involved in the training program at very close to the optimum degree. For example, no defensible requirement exists today for the college training of military personnel destined

for enlisted service. Thus current planning does not contemplate such on-campus training systems as were operated during the last war under the Army Specialized Training Program and the Navy V-12 Program. Neither is it believed desirable to attempt to convert college campuses into armed camps. The school campus, apart from its physical limitations, is not the proper site for conducting field training of the type needed today. Furthermore, such conversions would inevitably result in changes in educational philosophy, administration, and practice that would not be in harmony with current civilian educational thinking.

In devising higher-educational plans which will integrate best with the present training programs of the armed forces, one should consider carefully the ways in which the present military situation, including Universal Military Training and Service, differs from all-out mobilization. Although the present situation is an urgent one, it is not as catastrophic, nor does it overshadow all other considerations as did general mobilization during the last war. As far as can be seen at the present time, the increased military alertness and preparedness of the United States may be required for years to come. Therefore, it is prudent to see that normal activities, particularly those which are of great value to the nation, are not unduly disturbed. Any plans which are made should be of a type with which we can live, without too much discomfort, for a long time if necessary.

It follows from the above considerations that the plans of higher education for the present emergency should be very different from those appropriate during the all-out mobilizations of the two world wars. As a guest speaker, one not of your own honored profession, I hesitate to elaborate on what I think the nature of these plans should be. Only on the basis of your invitation to do so do I have the temerity to venture a few suggestions along this line. The military uncertainties of the present, however, permit me to suggest only the most general directions for these plans:

1. It seems to me that present educational plans should be very deliberately

formulated and should be projected on a long-term basis. The hastily executed schemes required during all-out war have no place at the present time.

2. New plans should aim to be as sound as those of the present. They should be shaped toward retaining an efficient educational system, one which will continue to produce the best results while at the same time being as economical as possible of students' time and taxpayers' money.

3. As far as military needs are concerned, educational plans need not include accelerated college programs. In fact, military plans will probably co-ordinate more effectively with present college programs, to which they are already geared.

4. Changes that may be required by the present military situation should not be permitted to disturb other well-established and fully validated areas of higher education.

5. I suspect much research is needed before the educational phases and the military phases of a young man's training can be most effectively integrated and correlated. The problem is not insuperable in the light of the excellent working relationships that already prevail between civilian education and the military.

6. Whatever plans are developed, they should encourage young men to get all the education and training they can prior to induction. Competition for in-service schooling beyond basic and branch training is exceedingly keen among those in high intelligence brackets. Every addi-

tional increment of formal schooling is important for the military success of these men.

7. As a final point on making training plans I wish to suggest that the best working relations between civilian educators and military men can be maintained if each recognizes the complete autonomy of the other and the preeminence each holds in his own sphere. Both represent old and respected professions. Both have built up tremendous bodies of knowledge. Both are alert to their own problems and are constantly striving for improvement.

As a representative of the Department of Defense, I wish to commend the sixth annual National Conference on Higher Education for the great interest it has shown in college military programs and for the prominent position it has given this subject on its agenda. American colleges and universities have always been in the vanguard of critical movements and have always given their best when the nation has been threatened.

We of the military depend upon higher education for many things. We seek your guidance in educational problems; we look to you for the solution of many of our technical problems; we come to you for the great bulk of potential young officers in time of war. I am sure that by working together now on this latest common problem, the building of a large and effective military force for the United States, we shall lighten our respective tasks; what is more important, we shall insure our success in this vital undertaking.

Chapter 20. Financing Private and Church-Related Colleges in the 1950's¹

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OUR discussion of fiscal policies for private and church-related colleges and universities will proceed under two

Chairman of the group was Charles J. Turck, Macalester College; consultant was John D. Millet, Commission on Financing Higher Education; consultant on public relations was Willard Collins, David Lipscomb College; and recorder was Harvey L. Turner, Hillsdale College.

¹ An address presented before Group 12 of the sixth annual National Conference on Higher Education, Chicago, Illinois, April 2, 1951.

assumptions: (1) that we will remain in a period of international tension and military build-up similar to that obtaining today and (2) that the policy of induction of college-bound and college-enrolled youth will be flexible, ranging between a general deferment on the one hand and the drafting of 18-year-olds on the other. Doubtless the actual situation will be between these extremes.

Brevity will require the use of averages as descriptive of central tendencies; we must maintain awareness that back of the averages are the great variations in institutional programs, salary levels, curricula, organization, student bodies, and patterns of finance.

The enrollment in American higher education in 1949-1950 had reached an estimated 2,748,000—the highest in our history. For many institutions, the financial stringency which had been desperate during the war had eased. Fees in many institutions, aided by the existence of G.I. entitlements, were increased in a fashion commensurate with the increase in living costs. At the same time, increases in salaries of teachers lagged behind raises in salaries of industrial personnel as the value of the dollar declined. The higher income per student was associated with lower cost per student, and the enlarged budgets were (generally) supported more from fees and with relatively small increases in support from philanthropy and from public funds.

During recent years, some progress has been made by many institutions in replacing substandard housing and substandard program factors and methods. Teachers' salaries have been increased, and class sizes and teaching loads have been adjusted. But the job is far from complete, and today an uncertainty of the future has in many institutions put in suspension plans for further improvement.

OUTLOOK FOR ENROLLMENT AND FINANCES ASSUMING GENERAL DEFERMENT OF COLLEGE STUDENTS

It is estimated that under an assumption of general deferment of college students, the present enrollment now estimated at 2,569,000 will decline 15.2 per cent next year, a further 3.5 per cent the following year, and will be at

1,975,000 in 1953-1954—23.1 per cent below the current level, and the 1953-1954 enrollment would still be 1.3 per cent above the estimated normal trend. Thereafter enrollment may rise to 2.5 million in 1959-1960 and 3.1 million in 1964-1965.

If there is general deferment of college students, perhaps we should plan for a general decline of 15 per cent next year, and a further five per cent the following year. There are three important developments that may not materially affect the averages but will affect certain of the institutions individually. These are: (1) the developing of R.O.T.C. programs; (2) the duty assignment of perhaps 50,000 inductees to college study; and (3) the placement of research contracts.

Now we can foresee an enrollment made up of the normal flow of youth from high school through college. We hope to achieve normal standards. We can expect under existing organization and practice a substantial increase in the unit cost. If such increase occurs, how can we finance it? If the increase in unit cost can be avoided, how can it be done?

The *average* expenditure per resident student in private colleges and universities in 1947-1948 was \$460. This was 38 per cent above the figure of \$334 in 1939-1940. The index of unit expenditure of 138 compares with the consumer's price index at that time of 169. The low expenditure per student reflects two major conditions: first, the relative decline in teachers' salaries and in use of substandard factors as the price level has risen; second, the abnormally high enrollments that have resulted in large classes and less individual attention to students.

If we can assume that expenditures per student had risen 15 per cent from 1948 to the outbreak of the Korean war, and that curtailment of expenditures can just equal the forces of inflation by the fall of 1952, so that unit expenditure will further rise 25 per cent as enrollment declines 20 per cent, then we can estimate the unit expenditure in 1952-1953 as being \$661 per student. This figure is 198 per cent of the 1940 figure and compares with the present consumer's price index of 185. If the level of student fees remains at the 1948 figure and if the same income from gifts, grants, endowment

earnings, and from state and local sources continues, then we can anticipate an average income per student in 1952-1953 of \$328 from fees and \$225 from other sources—a total of \$553. The difference between income and cost—or \$108 per student—is, of course, deficit. The total operating deficit of all private and church-related institutions may be over 110 million in 1952-1953.

The problem is not a short-term emergency—it has to do with maintaining fundamental values in American higher education. Basic to insuring a degree of equality of educational opportunity is insuring and maintaining a fair standard of institutional program, lest we waste the time and lives of our youth.

HOW TO IMPROVE THE OUTLOOK

There are at least four ways to increase income or reduce cost. These should help to reduce or avoid the estimated deficit for 1952-1953 and thereafter: (1) increase philanthropic support; (2) increase fees; (3) reduce costs without appreciably lowering standards; (4) improve financial operations by modifying or adding functions.

Philanthropic support may be increased. In 1952-1953, gifts and grants for current purposes—if received in the same amount as in 1947-1948—can be expected to provide average current income of \$79 per student, or 11.9 per cent of the estimated expenditure. Fees and gifts and grants account for 24.2 per cent of the total expenditure. The income attributable to philanthropy varies a great deal among institutions, the universities receiving the greater proportion.

The deficit estimated for 1952-1953 exceeds the total currently being received from either source. The funds received are exceedingly important in maintaining standards. Relatively little additional income is seen in the near term through appeals for endowment. Appeals for current support from alumni and friends and business corporations are seen as most fruitful.

The total available to private institutions from gifts and grants in 1947-1948 for educational and general purposes was about 77 million—an increase of some 12 million over the amount received in 1945-1946. This is an increase of 18.5 per cent and represents a substantial sum.

Some institutions will succeed in securing sufficient increase in gifts to solve their financial problems. For the private institutions as a group, even if they succeed (in light of present tax levels) in increasing gifts by 25 per cent, it will add less than 20 million to income. It is evident that for most institutions efforts to raise funds must be supplemented by other measures.

Fees may be increased. If fees were increased \$108 from an estimated \$328 average to a \$436 average, the rate of increase would be 33 per cent. If the increase did not affect enrollments, this would meet the deficit. While it may be argued that fees should rise as the value of the dollar declines, there are three considerations that argue against increasing the fee. The first is that high fees constitute a barrier to student enrollment. The second is that high fees tend to recruit enrollments of economically favored groups and result in educationally undesirable social stratification. Third, if fees in private institutions are raised beyond the point where value is considered equal to price, the students will enroll in public institutions where fees are lower. This would then not only fail to solve the problem, but would accentuate the other two evils to which I have referred.

Costs may be reduced without appreciably lowering standards. Given the standards, unit costs in education operate like unit costs in industry. We can devise diverse programs to provide educative experiences; we can utilize academic and nonacademic personnel and physical facilities in varying amounts to provide the program; we can vary class size; we can use the lecture method or supervised work experience, whether in laboratory, business, or community. We are thus afforded the combination of many variable factors and we have the opportunity to minimize cost.

Moreover, we must adapt our particular program to the size of our student body, to our location, and to community resources. We must see that the specializations we undertake are economical; that the range of program is economical. Perhaps we cannot afford as specialized a program in English, or overlapping of courses given by different departments; perhaps we cannot af-

ford courses on the graduate level; perhaps we should alternate our small classes; perhaps we should cooperate with our neighboring institution in sharing professors, libraries, and fundraising efforts. The achievement of economy is the denial of extravagance.

Suppose we redesign the curriculum so that we avoid costly differentiations, raise salaries of teachers, and insure quality of other factors and then, through use of larger classes, lower the unit cost. If this can be done without lowering the quality of educative experiences of students, it would seem appropriate.

If we proceed in this way, it may be found that such techniques are not practicable for institutions with enrollments of less than—say—500, or even 1000. But it is possible that the curriculum could be adapted to institutional size. In some instances, it might cover two rather than four years; in other instances, institutions may merge.

All of this relates to adaptations that in the opinion of competent professional educators will not appreciably lower the quality of educational experiences for the youth enrolled.

Financial operations may be improved by modifying or adding functions. Some, for example, will put more emphasis on training elementary-school teachers; some will train social-service workers; some will seek to move hospital schools of nursing into the college or university. Others will offer new programs in adult education. These modifications and additions will help the financial problem only if some existing facilities can be adapted to the new program.

It may be found that plant and administration can be more effectively used through the addition of such functions or that existing faculty can carry some of the required instruction. It may be found that new students—whether adults from the community or students in new courses—can pay fees that will help keep the staff intact. Finally, provisions for off-duty education in the armed services may be feasible for some.

STANDARDS MUST BE MAINTAINED

Suggestions for achieving a balance between income and expenditures in the future are not new. But it is to be ex-

pected that not all institutions will be successful. It is probable that some institutions, after every effort has been made to conserve standards, will be forced to adapt expenditures to income at some decline in standards. In some instances the decline will be slight, but in others it will be substantial. There is great danger that in the period ahead many of our youth will be enrolled in institutions affording a poor educational opportunity.

To guard against this danger, I suggest that a strong guard be mounted in each state to evaluate institutional programs and to maintain a watch on standards. Colleges that operate under minimum standards should not be permitted to do so under false pretenses. Unless this is done there is danger that the work of all colleges—good and bad alike—will be discredited.

It can be anticipated that some institutions under the new conditions will foresee they cannot continue to operate as before. They must restrict the program, merge with another institution, become a community college with local public support, or restrict the program to that of a junior college. If there is no alternative to be preferred to closing, then the institution should close. To chart the new course will take courage, but if the new course results in improving service to society, it may be the wise course.

STATE INTEREST IN PRIVATE

HIGHER EDUCATION IS INCREASING

There is a growing acceptance by the states of responsibility for higher-education facilities for qualified youth. There is abundant evidence of this fact in the increased financial support provided for state institutions, and in the movement from support of individual institutions to support of coordinated state systems.

State interest in private higher education has long been established. It is evidenced in tax exemptions. But as responsibility increases and the cost mounts, cooperation between public and private higher education is bound to increase. Every student educated at private expense lightens the burden on the state.

It is conceivable that in some states it would be in the public interest for the

state to assist its students in the payment of fees in private institutions with recognized standards. I suggest that the interest of the state in private higher education be carefully considered with a view to identifying areas and means of cooperation and increasing understanding.

DRAFT OF 18-YEAR-OLDS WILL CHANGE OUTLOOK

If the 18-year-olds are drafted, the enrollment outlook will change. Each class of 18-year-olds comprises about 1,050,000 men, of which 720,000 are estimated inductible. For the first three years and until the 19-year-olds are inducted, the annual figure is assumed to be 960,000, and thereafter 720,000.

It is assumed that in the near term 75,000 students of each class might be deferred to maintain an uninterrupted flow of trained personnel possessed of specialized skills. In the long run, such deferment may be considered inappropriate.

If the program of universal training and service is made effective in the summer of 1952, we can estimate the present enrollment of 2,569,000 will have declined 16.4 per cent by the fall of 1951 to 2,148,000—27.7 per cent by the fall of 1952 to 1,859,000—35.9 per cent by the fall of 1953 to 1,647,000, with a rise to the normal trend by the fall of 1955, at 18.6 per cent below the present level. These figures do not include increases in personnel in R.O.T.C. programs nor of servicemen given duty assignments to colleges.

On the face of the figures we could say that our problem under these conditions is like it was before, with a two-to-three-year crisis thrown in. If, as is possible, the term of service is extended—or, if as is also possible, the college population cannot be inducted and discharged according to times consistent with the academic calendar—our problem will be more acute.

Our problem, however, is greater than this, for we will be forced to look anew to our objectives and our curricula—as well as to our organizations and methods—to assure ourselves that our institutions are adapted to the new conditions. These conditions, if imposed, will not be for a temporary emergency but represent long-term-policy decision. We

must consider whether high schools and colleges will enter upon accelerated programs, whether certain objectives of a liberal-arts education can be attained during the period of service, whether present entrance standards to the several occupations and professions will need to be revised, and whether the liberal-arts college, as we now know it, will be altered. For our immediate purpose, we can assume that whatever the adaptation, young men will return from service to college, and the cost of either the present or the modified curriculum will be about the same.

While under either policy a substantial decline in enrollment is forecast for 1951-1952 (15 or 16 per cent), there are two major differences in the longer-term outlook for finance under the two extremes of manpower policy: (1) If the 18- and 19-year-olds are drafted, there are three years requiring some form of emergency financing (1952-1955); and (2) it is possible that the returning veterans may be granted an educational entitlement similar to provisions for G.I.'s of World War II.

To adjust to the expected decline in enrollment, some of the same considerations as earlier recommended are appropriate: (1) increase philanthropic support; (2) reduce costs without lowering standards; and (3) improve financial operations by modifying or adding functions. If the men return from service with educational entitlements, fees can be increased to insure appropriate standards.

The expected financial crisis will last about three years. By the fall of 1955 when enrollments will again be normal, unless care is exercised, many able teachers will have been dismissed—teachers who will be sorely needed in 1955 and the years ahead in which enrollments will increase by 50 per cent. The loss of key teachers to the profession should be avoided. Policies of retirement, of part-time service, of leaves of absence both for study and for service to the armed forces and of service in large institutions should be studied in order to keep the colleges strong.

Institutions should examine the designation of funds including those now classified as endowment, to identify those

given for unrestricted purposes. Unrestricted funds should be made available for deficit financing. The reserves should be augmented by gifts.

Consideration might well be given to an aggressive emergency plan for faculty improvement during the years of crisis. If a federal fund could be secured for fellowships for faculty improvement, many faculty members could spend time

in advanced study during the crisis. Under such conditions the crisis might improve the colleges rather than bring about their ruin.

Consideration might also be given to the principles of providing credit for deficit financing. For some institutions credit at low interest or at no interest might spell the difference between closing and survival.

Chapter 21. Financing Public Colleges¹

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EVEN as we meet here, legislatures in most of the states are concluding sessions in which they had defined, in part at least, the financial status of their universities and colleges during the very critical year ahead. It will be interesting to see how successful presidents and their boards have been in persuading legislatures that declining enrollments do not necessarily warrant reduced expenditures—that, on the contrary, loss of income from fees and mounting costs of operation may justify increased appropriations. We can be sure that the job has not been an easy one this year, nor is it likely to be in the near future, in the face of rising federal taxes and heavier demands on state resources for social security and related services.

Coupled with the handicap of reduced enrollments and fees is the impact of further inflation. In spite of the several salary increases given in most institutions during the last eight or ten years, few faculty members today have the purchasing power they had in 1939. The rise in the cost of living continues to outstrip increases in appropriations, while materials and supplies necessary to the operation of a college have advanced in price as much as 12 to 15 per cent since the beginning of hostilities in Korea. Furthermore, our selective-

service policies are so designed as to make the loss of faculty personnel slight as compared to the loss in students. During World War II faculty members were going into military service and civilian, war-related work in numbers approximately in keeping with the withdrawal of students. Under present policies, only a few faculty members in military-reserve units will be called to service. It would appear, moreover, that there is as yet little of the enthusiasm for the civilian, war-related assignment that was manifested in the early 40's. I should hasten to say that I do not lay this to any lack of patriotism. It is due rather to the feeling, right or wrong, that the situation is not as critical as it was after Pearl Harbor, and perhaps to caution generated by experience.

At any rate, it seems at present that most institutions will have to maintain their faculties essentially intact. This does not mean that their services cannot be profitably utilized. On the contrary, the specialized abilities of college faculties have never been of more benefit to state and nation than they can now be, if the facilities of the institutions are fully utilized in research and in training programs as they should be. The retention of practically all faculty personnel does mean, however, that the financial problem will be more acute.

If we are to cope successfully with the present emergency, and if our publicly supported institutions of higher learning are in the future to finance better educational programs than they have in the past, there would seem to be

¹ An address presented before Group 13 of the sixth annual National Conference on Higher Education, Chicago, Illinois, April 2, 1951. Chairman of the group was T. G. Sexton, Oklahoma State Regents for Higher Education; and recorder was E. Ross Bartley, Indiana University.

only two major approaches: (1) more funds must be forthcoming from the available sources and (2) we must, if possible, spend the money provided us more wisely so that we get more and better education for each dollar invested.

The first proposal leads us to an analysis of the sources of funds available to the publicly supported colleges of the nation. If we ignore for the time income from auxiliary enterprises and such gains as may be realized from contract research, there would seem to be only four sources available to us, and no others in prospect. These four are: (1) state appropriations (city appropriations in the case of the municipal college), (2) federal appropriations, (3) student fees, and (4) endowment income and gifts for current purposes.

Our principal hope for better support for publicly controlled institutions must lie with the 48 state legislatures and the people they represent. With full confidence in our policies and our operating procedures, and with no apologies to make, we should go before the people of our respective states and convince them that they cannot afford to deal niggardly with their universities and colleges. Generally speaking, the people of America are proud of their colleges and universities, and they are pleased when they expand and improve. They want a great system of publicly supported higher education, but they are vague in their thinking as to what a great institution of higher learning is, how it comes about, and what its real significance is in American society. I am afraid we have not always been good salesmen. Let me illustrate.

During World War II this nation performed almost miraculously in the area of industrial production. Without detracting in the slightest from the courage and efficiency of our fighting men, we can say that Germany and Japan were literally overwhelmed by munitions, armament, and equipment. Today we hear one speaker after another assert that should Russia elect an all-out war it is sure to lose in the long run because it cannot match our science, our technology, our industrial enterprise, and our productive capacity. They are probably right. My point is that they usually stop here or, if they pursue the point

further, wrongly assign the credit. Our success along these lines is not due to any inherent superiority on the part of our businessmen and industrialists or to any mysterious element in the American atmosphere. We successfully exploit our great natural resources and perform our miracles of management and production because we have an educational program that cultivates the essential genius and produces the required leadership. Our achievements in science, in technology, and in production have their origin in the classrooms and laboratories of our American universities and colleges. All of this is no accident. It is as though the men who conceived and brought into being the American land-grant college had almost prophetic vision; as though they had anticipated the necessity that would be ours to save ourselves by the might of our minds; as though they could foresee the need for our agriculture to feed the millions abroad; as though they had known in advance of the Marshall Plan and of the Point-IV program. The colleges of this country have been a priceless element in the making of the freedom and might of this nation, and we must see that our people understand this and accept the obligation involved.

It may be assumed, I think, that the long-established policy of the Federal Government in aiding instruction, research, and extension services in certain specialized fields will be continued. It is probable, too, that there will be further expansion in the amounts of money provided and in the areas covered. Are there, we may now ask, other ways in which the Federal Government can and should help in the support of higher education? Should there, for example, be direct grants to universities and colleges for general and current purposes? Should the Federal Government assist in one way or another in the construction of college buildings? Might a program of federal scholarships be feasible and desirable? We could well debate each of these three questions for the entire time allotted to this program. In the time allowed me, I can do no more than give a brief and personal reaction to each.

I do not believe that direct federal appropriations to the universities and

colleges of this country are feasible or desirable, either for current purposes or for capital outlay. In the first place almost 50 per cent of our college students are enrolled in privately supported schools. It is doubtful that the Federal Government will ever be willing directly to subsidize such schools beyond the specialized types of assistance now rendered certain land-grant colleges, and I, for one, would deem it unwise for it to do so. Moreover, I would consider the privately endowed college shortsighted if it risked a considerable measure of its freedom in exchange for federal financial assistance. It would seem to follow that if the private college cannot be aided, it should not be placed in a more disadvantageous position by general subsidization of the state-controlled colleges and universities by the Federal Government. Second, I am convinced that any further direct aid to education by the Federal Government should be at the elementary and secondary levels. Certainly, until educational opportunities at these levels are more nearly equalized than they are at present—and federal aid would seem to offer about the only solution—there cannot be advanced a very strong argument for direct grants to institutions of higher learning.

Low-interest loans to colleges and universities, both private and public, for the erection of faculty and student housing, and, perhaps, for other emergency construction may be justified. Also, it would not seem unreasonable for the Federal Government to assist directly in providing armories and other facilities for the R.O.T.C.

Finally, there is much merit in a program of federal scholarships for college students, such as that now being proposed. We have not hesitated to spend huge sums of money at the federal level for conservation of our natural resources, and it would seem equally wise to make a real investment in the conservation of human resources. Several studies have shown that about half of the superior one-fourth of our high-school graduates do not attend college, and that the primary reason they do not do so is that they lack sufficient funds. There is represented here an appalling waste of potential leadership that this nation can

ill afford. Such a program has the advantage of enlisting the support of the government in the individual as opposed to the institution. Though the Federal Government may with some justification disclaim responsibility for the welfare of a particular college or university, it cannot in equal justice disclaim responsibility for a citizen deprived by accident of birth of one of his most cherished rights—that of making the most of his inherent capacities and aptitudes.

I would conclude that a federal-scholarship program is a project worthy of our united support, provided it can be administered at the state level, free from political or other detrimental influences; provided the subsidies go directly to individuals of superior capacity without restriction as to the place of their attendance at college; and provided an effective means test can and will be applied. Such a program will be almost imperative if selected students are to be deferred from military service to enroll in college.

The third source of revenue mentioned previously is that of student fees. What are the prospects of larger support from this source? Generally speaking the prospects are very poor. The cost of a college education, even in the state-supported institution, is already too high in this, a nation that stresses so much equality of opportunity and training for citizenship. True, the major charge in the publicly supported institution is for room and board, rather than for tuition or incidental fees, but further additions to the cost at any point mean less and less opportunity for the deserving student whose family has little in the way of financial resources. We cannot justifiably reduce charges for room and board below the institution's full outlay in providing these services. Neither should we profit from these services at the expense of the student. With such charges largely fixed in relation to the price level, we must turn to the tuition or incidental fees if we wish, on the one hand, to increase the institution's income from fees, or if, on the other hand, we wish to reduce the cost to the student in order that more may share in the benefits of higher education. Most college administrators would insist that we cannot reduce fees at this time. On the

other hand, we should not further increase the cost to the student. It is already too high, and if it cannot be lessened, we must have a scholarship program much broader in scope than any we have yet provided. No nation, a democracy least of all, can afford to waste half of its finest talent and potential leadership by placing higher education beyond their reach.

The fourth classification of income mentioned previously is that derived from endowment or from gifts for current purposes. Generally speaking, this source has been considered the province of the privately supported school, and I would not advocate that the public college and university invade it too vigorously. On the other hand, the latter should not be denied the right to seek additional support from gifts, particularly among its own alumni and in those cases where the donor prefers to invest in the public institution. There are some today who do prefer it. Gradually it is being recognized that there are needs at the state-supported college or university—many of them, in fact—that cannot or will not be met by state appropriations. Furthermore, the aversion to “giving to the state,” as it is so often described, is rapidly disappearing, particularly in those cases where the money can be received and managed for the institution by a separately incorporated agency, such as the research foundation which is today an adjunct of many state universities.

Mention was made at the beginning of this paper of two major approaches to the problem of financing an adequate program of higher education. The first we have now considered. The second was that of spending available funds most wisely in order that we may get more and better education per dollars invested. Not only do we owe it to the taxpayer to make the most of every dollar expended, but it is only when we do that we can successfully go to him for larger appropriations.

I do not mean to imply that we have been wasteful or that we have managed badly the funds available for higher education. On the contrary, the record has been a good one. There is always room, however, for improvement in

the best managed institution. For example, we all offer too many courses, and we spread the content of every field entirely too thin. The results can only be less-effective instruction and unnecessary outlays for faculty salaries. To me, one of the mysteries of higher education is why professors cannot see how this pyramiding of courses and curricula jeopardizes their chances for higher salaries. Did you ever stop to imagine what the college catalog of the year 2000 will look like if we continue our present rate of curricular expansion? Then there is this matter of duplication of work among institutions. How long is it going to take us to place our institutional ambitions secondary to the welfare of the state or region? Everyone knows that it is bad economy for every institution to try to do everything, particularly in the professional and graduate areas where facilities and instruction are costly. We do not, however, seem to profit much from this knowledge. In this connection, I would refer briefly to the work of the Board of Control for Southern Regional Education. You no doubt know that the emphasis in this organization is on regional cooperation to the end that the South may purchase more and better services for the money it expends on higher education. Already its achievements are far in advance of anything most of us would have thought possible when the idea was initiated. During the current year contracts arranged by the Board cover 584 students in medicine, dentistry, and veterinary medicine, and a total of \$764,625 is being paid by 13 states to the several universities providing the professional training. As a result, these professional schools are stronger; students have been given opportunities for professional study that would otherwise have been denied them. Most important of all, much of the pressure for the establishment of new schools of medicine, dentistry, and veterinary medicine has been removed. The contract program is now being expanded to cover social work, and for the last 18 months the universities of 14 different states have been studying the ways and means by which regional co-operation can be extended to the graduate program. Here the long-time

objective is the development, in the appropriate institutions, of distinguished centers of graduate study and research in a number of areas of special significance to the economy and culture of the South.

Here is a convincing demonstration

that interinstitutional and regional co-operation can work, and that from them important economies and a better quality of higher education can result. There is no better way to appeal to a legislature than by such evidence of good faith and wise administration.

Chapter 22. Meeting Emergency Problems in College-Business Management¹

CHARLES W. HOFF

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As we consider the topic assigned, let us examine the business-management function. Probably no two college presidents have exactly the same convictions regarding this matter, but the following business-management duties, in various orders of importance, are required in every institution of higher education. Not all of them are assigned directly to the business manager by every college. These functions must, however, be performed by *someone* in every college: (1) budget preparation, (2) accounting and budget control, (3) reports—financial and statistical, (4) collection of revenues, (5) expenditure of funds, (6) purchasing (and responsibility for institutional property), (7) auxiliary enterprises, (8) physical plant construction and maintenance (including insurance coverage), (9) noninstructional personnel, (10) relations with students and parents, (11) faculty relations (finance and facilities), (12) public relations (business, industry, government), (13) financing special projects, (14) fund-raising, (15) investment administration, (16) research (educational finance and business management), (17) retirement systems, hospitalization, health, and life insurance.

MAJOR CURRENT PROBLEMS

The business manager. There are those who say that certain colleges are too

small to justify the establishment of an office for business management. John Dale Russell in *Finance of Higher Education* has this to say, "The size of an institution conditions to some extent the administrative organization for business affairs. In some very small colleges all administrative functions, including business affairs, are performed by a single officer, the president. Whenever the enrollment reaches a figure in excess of 100 or 150 students, experience seems to indicate a necessity for a separate office for the management of business affairs. In the larger universities the business office itself becomes a very complex organization."

Robert B. Stewart, Vice President of Purdue University, made a statement at the University of Chicago Institute on College Administration in 1947. He said, "The definition of the educational result is not the function of the business officer. Since it is his business, however, to gear the use of material things to bring about the accomplishment of the desired educational result, he should be a party in the educational council and participate freely in its deliberation."

L. D. Coffman of the University of Minnesota had the following to say, "I look upon the comptrollership (business manager) of the university as a position of first importance which may increase in importance with time, depending entirely upon the ability, the vision, the insight, the educational program of the comptroller himself. Unless he thinks of his position primarily in terms of its educational implications, unless he looks upon himself as something more than a person who is appointed to save money,

¹ An address presented before Group 14 of the sixth annual National Conference on Higher Education, Chicago, Illinois, April 2, 1951. Chairman of the group was Trent C. Root, Southern Methodist University; consultant was J. L. McCaskill, National Conference for Mobilization of Education; and recorder was H. H. Brooks, Coe College.

there will be little progress in this position."

The business officer should be responsible to the president, but he himself must have an educational philosophy in his approach to all problems. The president should insist that the business officer keep up to date in his field, just as he wants his social-science faculty and his guidance staff and his deans to make their professional growth a real thing with meaning.

Lack of a united front. There is no one program of action in higher education, nationally, for all of us to point to and say, "This is it. This is what we stand for. This is what we will fight for!" Unfortunately, this has been true both in peace and in war. It is not limited to basic academic matters such as *general education*. Neither is it limited to teaching preparation of faculty, nor to proficiency of teaching, nor to military service for students. It has been most dramatically demonstrated in the disgraceful administration of athletics in higher-education institutions. The recent failure of the sanity code, as evidenced by action at Dallas, Texas, was the result of college presidents and boards being unwilling to adopt and operate local policies to fit a sound national program, and then to fight for those principles.

Colleges compete with each other, promotionally, for public favor. Educational associations compete with each other for recognition and acceptance as *the one most-nearly representative group*—the one which should be looked to for advice by all governmental or military agencies. The president of some large university is invited to speak to a Congressional Committee or to a military leader, and he is immediately quoted as being *the spokesman for higher education*. The next day other presidents speak up to object. Who could blame President Roosevelt for saying to higher education during World War II, "A plague on both your houses!" because educational administrators could not agree upon a program of action? There has been no real united front in higher education.

Ralph McDonald, Executive Secretary of NEA's Department of Higher Education, deserves the gratitude of

America's small colleges for his recent statement to a committee of Congress urging it not to accept statements of certain individuals as being the official views of all higher education. We need this type of leadership. We must have educational spokesmen who obtain facts *from* educational leaders before they purport to speak *for* them. And most of all, we need fast agreement among college presidents on an acceptable higher-education program during this defense emergency.

Probably the best example of what is *possible* in the way of cooperation and coordination among higher-education administrators in wartime is found among college-purchasing agents during World War II. They already had in operation a successful organization, the National Association of Educational Buyers. When the problem of priorities and allocations of critical materials was being studied, this single association was called upon for advice. Its executive secretary moved to Washington for the duration. Educational representatives from the Association were appointed to top policy-making positions on W.P.B., and throughout the emergency there was probably no group in the country that received more fair and understanding treatment than the colleges and universities.

Chief business officers had not shown such foresight. Although two or three excellent officers were selected from college-business management for advisory and liaison positions, the group as a whole retained only its regional associations, and there was never complete unanimity. During the past year, however, the various regional business-officers associations have formed a National Federation, with Jamie Anthony, Business Manager of Georgia Institute of Technology, as its president. This is an important step toward the final goal of a national association of college-business officers. At least during this emergency there will be one single organization that will command official recognition as truly representing college-business management in the United States.

Internal-management problems. Let us now explore the business-management functions listed above, and identify a

few of the major problems. Many affect business management directly. We must, however, be equally cognizant of indirect business-management problems which may be potentially dangerous to long-range higher-education objectives. For lack of a better name let us designate the following as *internal-management problems*:

1. *Budget preparation.* The basic budget problem facing all colleges, now, is FINANCIAL. Estimating next year's income seems impossible.

Another very serious *budget* problem is that of acceleration. If the college is to operate three semesters instead of two, or four quarters instead of three, both the income and expenditure side of the budget will be drastically affected.

The duties in college-business offices have increased tremendously with the reporting and billing requirements of the Veterans Administration. The "checks and double-checks" by the V.A. itself, followed now by the auditing of the General Accounting Office, increase the operating costs of every institution that educates "G.I." students. Incidentally, the G.A.O. is proving to higher education, in no uncertain manner, that federal aid without federal control is absolutely impossible. The recent insistence of G.A.O. auditors in Nebraska that college-faculty members deliver their personal grade books and class-attendance records to them for inspection, and that billing be computed on the basis of the last day of class attendance as evidenced by these instructors' grade books rather than the dean's and registrar's official reports, opens up a new and most interesting avenue for research on the part of those who are advocating federal aid to higher education. Think it over!

2. *Purchasing.* Procurement of war-surplus property is no longer a major problem in colleges. The problems of priorities and allocations which became so familiar to all of us during World War II are beginning to face purchasing agents again.

3. *Auxiliary enterprises.* A few colleges are still in need of more dormitories, and with the expansion of R.O.T.C. units, more will find themselves short of facilities. Some of the

larger institutions have started curtailing operation of part of their residence halls, however, because of decreasing numbers of students.

Food services are a constant concern. Raw-food costs continue to climb. Demands for higher wages never cease. Military and industrial plants are enticing cooks and bakers away with much higher salaries.

Bookstore managers report that their needs for the next 12 months seem to be well protected, but what will happen after that, no one knows. Paper is already short, and warnings have been sent out about other items. If the postal department succeeds in obtaining higher mail rates for magazines and books, the students will be the ones to suffer.

We are told that some federal agencies still refuse to carry their share of indirect costs in connection with supposedly self-supporting research projects carried on in the colleges for those agencies. This may become more critical as "government" takes on more and more authority and control!

4. *Physical plant.* Problems involving the physical plant include completion of construction already under way, planning future buildings for anticipated increased enrollments in the next upsurge, re-appraisals and adjustment of insurance coverage, turnover in labor and technical personnel, and maintenance, repairs, and upkeep of present facilities. Already there are examples in some colleges of general orders to eliminate certain flat percentages of personnel from maintenance and other noninstructional staffs to save funds for faculty salary increases. Long-range consideration of building and equipment care and of actual service to the educational program should be the basis for every decision.

5. *Personnel.* Industry, military posts, and governmental bureaus are pulling all types of noninstructional employees away from colleges. The use of students on a part-time basis will always be a necessary student-aid function on every campus. Careful attention should be given this activity, however, because the use of students as an *economy* measure is not the answer. Outside interests, irregular schedules, and too often, lack of a sense of responsibility, account for

a high degree of inefficiency among student employees.

6. *Fund-raising.* Fund-raising is always considered a major problem. At the present time it is viewed by some persons as a futile effort because of the increasing tax burdens being placed on the same persons who would normally be approached for gifts. Surprisingly, however, professional-campaign organizers report that there are increasing numbers of potential small contributors and that *more was raised in 1950 than ever before.*

7. *Inadequacy of retirement systems.* The immediate problem concerning retirement systems is threefold. First, it concerns the establishment of new systems for institutions that still have no actuarially sound plans. Second, careful studies should be carried on within every institution to determine how the new social-security amendment can best be utilized to benefit that institution. Finally, there should be a continuing study within every institution to insure as near adequate coverage as the institution can afford during times of increasing inflation.

Military and other governmental problems. Once our young men are inducted into military service during peacetime, as a permanent plan, they will be started on a way of life that could eventually "control" their votes, or at least their military indoctrination could lead to influence of their votes. The recent announcement regarding the plans for a deferment program to be based upon nationwide tests and upon actual accomplishments in college is encouraging. Whether the results are satisfactory or not will depend upon the vigilance of our college administrators and of the parents of this country. No organization or plan is any better than the way it is administered. Local boards are given certain quotas to maintain in various age limits, and this obligation comes first.

We must recognize that no test has yet been devised to determine *incentive*, and that this is often more important than "IQ" or aptitude. An interested and determined student may be far more important to America than an intellectual genius. (What score would Henry Ford

have made in these tests in his younger days?)

The great value of the recently announced regulation is its morale-lifting potential. In addition, the requirement of tests will provide an incentive for better work in high school. The recognition of high college grades by local draft boards will be a genuine motivation for many boys.

Another governmental problem that we are or will be facing is contractual relations (1) with the military services for various projects, (2) with the United States Public Health Service, (3) with the Veterans Administration, and (4) with other agencies for E.S.M.W.T. or a similar program, and for scholarships and fellowships. One warning I wish to leave: In all contractual activities with any governmental agency, (1) use an attorney to interpret, review, and approve contracts before signing and (2) use an outside, disinterested C.P.A. to set up and audit all accounting for all government contracts.

There continue to be federal funds for those programs which have already operated for many years, but we are again faced with controls in the form of priorities and allocations in our purchasing activities.

Attitude of the citizens. The United States press, the radio, the pulpit, lecturers in our service clubs, our forward-looking college professors, and finally, some of our Congressmen are warning America of the present trend toward inferior personnel, inefficiency, and actual corruption in high places, and the constant attempt of government to "control" the citizens. Congressman Buffet of Nebraska wrote to me recently as follows: "... Congress is about to make an infinitely worse blunder (than the 1947 R.F.C. vote)—despite strong warnings. It may soon pass the universal military conscription bill for surface reasons that seem very convincing.

"The pressure power of R.F.C. is like a candle against the noonday sun when compared with the political power of the military—once conscription is permanent. Already many Congressmen jump when the military whistles. When U.M.T.S. is added—a power that will reach into every business and home in

the land—Congressmen will obey the military dictates, or they won't be Congressmen any more! Have you thought what that will do to America?"

Business officers have a stake in the future of higher education of the United States. Our job is to help faculty members do a better job of teaching. Why worry about meeting emergency problems in college-business management if our country loses sight of the long-range objectives and values of higher education? America and America's ideals and our future generations are worth the effort—and we do have faith that someone will come through with the answers.

WHAT CAN THE BUSINESS MANAGER DO ABOUT IT?

You can know your institution's philosophy and objectives, its educational program, its faculty and employees, its physical plant, its assets and liabilities,

its flexibility to meet potential emergencies.

You can know the area served by your institution: the people and their interests, the home conditions, the religions, the elementary and high schools, the principal businesses, the needs for educational service.

You can search constantly, but unemotionally, for factual information about the "emergency" itself. What is it? What has caused it? What provoked the crisis? What is the probable solution? How long will it probably last? How can your institution best serve?

You can help your institution to keep from trying to be all things to all men! "Spreading too thin" cuts down your effectiveness. "Grabbing contracts" in time of panic can eliminate your college from later programs in which you might serve far more efficiently.

You can BE YOURSELF. Your college should BE ITSELF!

Chapter 23. The Control and Management of Contract Research in Higher Education¹

BERNARD B. WATSON

United States Office of Education

CONTRACT research in colleges and universities has developed within the last ten years into a business of sizable proportions, and with that development have come many of the problems of big business—problems of organization, of management, and even some which are normally associated with unregulated monopolies. According to the report of the study of education for the Hoover Commission Task Force on Public Welfare, expenditures for this purpose amounted in 1940 to just under \$13,000,000 while estimates made by the Bureau of the Budget for the last fiscal

year indicate a total expenditure for contract research in higher-education institutions of just over \$100,000,000. Even allowing for the decline in the purchasing power of the dollar, it is apparent that there has been a tremendous growth in this type of activity. Accurate figures on research contracts supported by industry are not available, but estimates indicate a relative growth of about the same order of magnitude with the total about one-fourth as great as the government-contract total.

Before considering the history of the growth of the research-contract program in higher education, it might be well to review the classification of research into various types, and the kind of institution or research organization in which each of these types of research flourishes. What is said will have particular reference to research in the natural sciences, but with little or no change the same ideas can be carried over to research in other fields.

¹ An address presented before Group 15 of the sixth annual National Conference on Higher Education, Chicago, Illinois, April 2, 1951. Chairman of the group was E. J. Workman, New Mexico School of Mines; consultant was R. M. Hixon, Iowa State College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts; consultant on public relations was James W. Armsey, Illinois Institute of Technology; and recorder was Lloyd A. Garrison, University of Denver.

Research may be classified as basic, background, or applied and developmental research. Basic research is undertaken for the sole purpose of extending the boundaries of knowledge. The investigator is guided by his interest in understanding natural behavior and not, in general, by any conscious desire to develop new practical applications of knowledge. Actually this type of research has been the most productive of important new practical developments. Examples of great advances in technology, in medicine, and in the arts which have come about through basic research are so numerous that they hardly need any mention. All of you are familiar with Mr. Faraday's discovery of the principle of electromagnetic induction which led some 40 to 50 years later to the development of a practical method for the generation of electricity on a large scale and on which our present electrical industry is largely based. You are equally familiar with the history of the discovery of X-rays by Mr. Roentgen. The latter case is an example of the fact that basic research may lead to the discovery of a phenomenon, no hint of which could possibly have been initially in the mind of the investigator. If Mr. Roentgen had been searching for a way to assist physicians in examining the internal organs of the body, probably the last place he would have looked would have been the interior of a highly evacuated glass tube. These two examples of important practical consequences of basic research also illustrate the wide range in the magnitudes of the time lag between the basic discoveries and their application. In the first instance the time lag ran into many years; in the second, the practical applications came within a few weeks.

Background research is the term applied to investigations directed toward the accumulation of data of value in the application of concepts and principles already uncovered through basic research. Geologic surveys and programs for the systematic measurement of physical constants are examples.

Applied research and development make use of the results of basic and background research in a conscious effort to develop new methods, techniques,

and devices or to improve existing methods, techniques, and devices.

Because of the widely different characteristics of the three types of research, each flourishes under its own peculiar conditions and each has its natural habitat in university, in government, or in industrial laboratories. Applied research thrives in industrial laboratories and in the laboratories of agencies of the government which have a special interest in the development and improvement of particular devices or types of devices. The interest of industry is understandable since the successful prosecution of applied research will in general lead to patentable and marketable discoveries. Among government agencies the interest of the Department of Defense in applied research on weapons of warfare is equally understandable.

Background research is carried out in all three types of laboratories but on a large scale would appear to be the province of government laboratories since the results of such research are of such wide usefulness in engineering, in industry, and in other important segments of the economy, but do not lend themselves to immediate economic exploitation.

In the case of applied and background research the specific goals are known in advance, and it is possible to work out, at least in broad outlines, the procedures to be followed in arriving at these goals. Basic research, on the other hand, does not lend itself to this type of programming. Moreover, basic research does not flourish under pressures to achieve immediate results. Furthermore, industry's interest in this type of research is limited because of the considerable uncertainty that any results will be achieved which the supporting concern can turn to immediate profits. For all of these reasons, the chief contributions to basic research have historically and necessarily come from university laboratories.

In spite of the fact that research work of the type historically associated with higher-education institutions forms the foundation for all applied and developmental research and is, therefore, the most productive of practical results, it does not from the business, or short-term point of view, pay its own way

and for that reason requires financing of a nonbusiness type.

The pressures to find new sources of financial support for fundamental research came about as a result of the partial drying up of the traditional sources of support, combined with a demand for increased research activity. Contributing to these pressures were the general inflationary pressures and the increasing expensiveness of research particularly in certain fields as, for example, nuclear physics. The greatly increased demand for research began to develop just prior to our entrance into World War II with the growing realization that military weapons' development in the United States had not kept pace with other scientific and technical developments. To redress the situation, the Office of Scientific Research and Development was established and immediately set about to develop the necessary large-scale research program. Since the facilities and personnel of existing government laboratories were not adequate to do the job, arrangements were made to use the facilities and personnel of industrial and university laboratories. To accomplish this, O.S.R.D. developed a contractual relationship with colleges and universities and with industrial laboratories designed to safeguard the government's interests and, at the same time, to insure a continuance of the conditions under which research has traditionally flourished. Since the O.S.R.D. contract has served as a model for research contracts of a number of government agencies in the postwar period, it will be worth while to consider some of its features.

The features of chief interest in the O.S.R.D. contract are the performance clause and the provision for payment for the research conducted. The performance clause in a contract for research must necessarily be different from that in contracts for other types of work since too detailed a specification of the nature of the work to be performed would restrict the freedom of the investigator to use his own judgment as to the methods to be followed in finding solutions for the problem under attack. Such a restriction would be fatal to the progress of any basic research project. The performance clause in-

serted in the O.S.R.D. contract was a very simple one: to conduct studies and experimental investigations in connection with a stated problem and make a final report by a specified date. With so general and flexible a statement of the work to be performed the contractor was not hampered in his choice of methods.

The principle that no profit should be realized in the performance of research was used as the basis for the provision covering payments to the contractor. In the case of higher-educational institutions and nonprofit-research foundations there is no question of the reasonableness of the no-profit provision, but even in the case of industrial-research laboratories it was argued that industry does not ordinarily expect its research work to show a direct profit and that the same indirect profits in increased know-how would accrue from a government-supported research project. The section of the contract governing payments to the contractor provided, however, that the full cost of the work be paid, including all direct costs and those indirect and often hidden costs which are incident to the administration of a research project. To cover these indirect costs there was provided a payment for "overhead" amounting in the case of the O.S.R.D. contracts to 40 per cent of the salary budget. This provision for overhead has been continued in research contracts written by government agencies since the end of the war though there is considerable variation among the agencies in the practices followed and in the amounts allowed. The provision for overhead in the contracts written by the Office of Naval Research follows the O.S.R.D. model while the Public-Health-Service-Research grants allow an overhead of eight per cent of the total direct costs of the project.

With the end of the war it became apparent that in order to maintain the nation's scientific and technological leadership it would be necessary for basic research carried out in higher-education institutions to be continued at a high quantitative level—a level much higher than that existing before the war. It was equally apparent that colleges and universities would not be able to carry the load with their own resources and with

their traditional external sources of support. The case for federal support of research in colleges and universities was strongly made in Mr. Bush's report "Science, the Endless Frontier."² Mr. Bush proposed that the support be provided through the establishment of a National Research Foundation. Although the National Research Foundation, or as it is now called, the National Science Foundation, was not immediately realized and is only now beginning to get under way, a number of agencies of the government have stepped into the breach and are providing financial support for most of the research work now being done by colleges and universities. Chief among the agencies providing support for basic research is the Office of Naval Research which has followed the pattern of the O.S.R.D in its contractual arrangements with higher-education institutions.

The relations between O.N.R. and colleges and universities have been most satisfactory, and there has been no suggestion of any attempts to exercise improper direction or control of educational institutions. Research personnel of colleges and universities have in the main been able to carry on the kinds of research which they would normally have done, on a much smaller scale, with the limited research funds of their institutions. Alan T. Waterman, civilian head of the O.N.R., has recently proposed a set of guiding principles for the effective operation of external-research programs supported by a government agency. The principles enunciated are essentially those which the O.N.R. has followed in its operations. They are:

1. In selection of items for support, emphasis should be placed upon the field of interest of the agency and upon the caliber of the investigator, with final selection made from specific problems proposed by interested research scientists and accompanied by endorsement of their institutions.

2. Every effort should be made to insure that the working conditions are appropriate to research. These mean freedom in performance of research and freedom to publish and exchange information with colleagues.

3. Administrative details should be handled as fully as possible by the respective adminis-

trative staffs of the institution and the supporting agency. The initial arrangements and any subsequent changes should be reviewed, however, by the interested scientists on both sides.

4. The supporting agency should possess a scientific staff with full authority regarding approval of research projects and it should have committees of experts to guide it in the formulation of its program.

5. The scientific staff of the supporting agency should be composed of scientists with research experience who know from personal background the conditions that should be maintained. This staff should be competent to discuss the work intelligently with the working research groups. It should also be competent administratively and organizationally to deal effectively with administrative and service units in the agency and also with other agencies with which the work should be coordinated.

There is no question that the government's investment in the research activities of colleges and universities is paying off in the greatly increased productivity of research in those fields which are being supported. There are, however, some possible dangers in the administration of the research-contract programs, in the distribution of funds among fields and among institutions, in the effects both on institutions which receive financial support and on those which do not, and these sources of danger should be carefully studied so as to avoid damage to the fabric of higher education as it has developed in this country.

The most serious source of danger lies in the almost complete concentration of federal-research funds in the natural sciences and the almost complete neglect, consequently, of the social sciences and humanities. While no federal control of higher-education programs is, of course, intended in this distribution of funds, there is, nevertheless, a subtle form of control exercised in that colleges and universities are forced, in order to take advantage of the funds provided, to build up their facilities and staffs in the natural sciences to the detriment, both materially and from the standpoint of prestige, of departments of social science and humanities. The distortion of the program of higher education and the glamorizing of the natural sciences must have the further effect of drawing into the natural-science fields a higher pro-

² Bush, Vannevar. "Science, the Endless Frontier." *Fortune* 32: 1-14; September, 1945.

portion of the abler students which in time will throw out of balance even further the relative research efforts in the several fields of study.

A second serious source of danger lies in the excessive concentration of government-research contracts in relatively few colleges and universities. Fewer than 200 of our 1800 higher-education institutions have government-financed-research projects of any kind, and fewer than 100 institutions receive the great bulk of all research funds distributed. One effect of the establishment of large research projects at a few large institutions is to drain away from the many smaller colleges their competent scientific personnel. When account is taken of the fact that in the past the small liberal-arts colleges have produced a disproportionately large number of students who have gone on to scientific careers, it is apparent that we are running the risk of cutting off at the source the training of many individuals who are potential contributors to research. While it is still too early to observe any of the effects on the training of a new generation of scientists which may already have been produced by the concentration of research projects in relatively few institutions, the practice, if continued, has serious implications for the future.

Not only are the "have-not" colleges and universities affected by the existence of large contract-research projects in the more favored institutions but the effects within the "have" institutions are not entirely on the credit side. Often salary differentials exist between staff members working on contract research and those whose work is supported entirely by the institution. While it is true that such salary differentials are in general justified because of the less secure tenure of the contract work, nevertheless these differentials may develop into sources of friction. Some universities have sought to circumvent this problem by establishing research institutes so as to insulate those on contract work from those on the regular faculty, but the desirability of such a procedure is not wholly established since

it may well introduce another divisive force within the university staff.

Another effect within an institution favored with large contract-research projects is the development of a considerably larger administrative machinery than colleges and universities have maintained in the past. The existence of such extensive administrative machinery may tend to insulate top policy-making officers from the staff at the working level with the consequent danger that policy decisions may not always be based on a firm educational foundation.

The income and expense balance sheets of some institutions with large contract-research programs show a distribution among items which seem to be fraught with danger, although it is difficult to put one's finger on just what the dangers are. As an example, though not a typical one, we might look at the financial report of one of the nation's outstanding technical institutions. The income and expenditures of this institution amounted in 1949-1950 to \$9,400,000. On the income side, seven per cent was provided by tuition and fees which ordinarily ought to represent the main business income of a private higher-education institution. Somewhat over 64 per cent of the income was from governmental and industrial research, with contract research for the government representing 50.7 per cent of the total institutional income. On the expenditure side, 24 per cent went for the main business of the institution, departmental instruction, and research. Fifty-seven per cent of total expenditures went for contract-research projects.

Finally, the most fundamental question of all is in connection with programs of research carried out by higher-education institutions under contract with government or industry. Much of the contract research now being conducted is of an applied or developmental nature, and such work has not historically been carried out under university auspices. Whether the long-term interests of higher education are served by research projects of this type is a question which well merits the attention of the National Science Foundation now coming into being.

Chapter 24. Strengthening the Public Relations of Higher Education¹

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IS public relations of higher education in danger of becoming a cult? Is it, on the other hand, in danger of not becoming a profession? Is it in danger both on the national and the institutional levels of not having a consistent, well-integrated, noncontradictory story to tell? Is it the primary business of professional public relations to furnish the content as well as tell the story of higher education? If the answer to the last question is "no," then whose primary business is it, and where do the members of the public-relations profession fit in? To what extent has higher education in America, and in individual institutions, failed to get across its all-important story to the public and to the government.

Last year this Conference, on the recommendation of its National Committee on Public Relations, invited a number of the leading members of the American College Public Relations Association to sit in on its numerous group conferences as special consultants and participants. The PR members were asked to point out and point up public-relations implications in the topics being discussed. This action is a precursor of what should be done, and more and more is frequently being done by individual institutions. It was so satisfactory to all concerned that it has been continued. The PR people are back this year—not as guests but as regular participating members of the Conference, and this is an answer to one of the implications of the questions raised. Its meaning is that PR is not simply a group of technicians with finished products just off the production line to be marketed. PR people are potential factors in all stages of the planning, production, and promulgation of the higher-education

program. In a special way they facilitate the back-and-forth movement of thinking and ideas between the institutions of higher education and the sustaining public.

Incidentally, it appears gratuitous to try to set up a dichotomy between institutions of higher education and "the public" by suggesting that if "the public does not like something about the university, our temptation is to change this so the public will like us," and to suggest that higher education has some kind of divine sustaining power which should and could make it far divergent from the society of which it is a part. As in so many areas of social action the choice here is not "either—or"—it is an integration of both.

If the PR people should not be handed a finished product, a packaged job, is this not also unacceptable to the public? If there is one human trait that we are proud to believe has been especially developed in the American, it is the desire to participate, to be a part of, to help to build, to belong. To confront him with a *fait accompli*, something completed, in affairs of social institutions, especially government or schools, is an affront to the typical American and arouses in him resentment and opposition. Woodrow Wilson's expression "open agreements openly arrived at" crystallized our deep-seated, nationally developed feeling of wanting to be "in the know" on matters that deeply concern us. Incidentally, it might be said here that this is one of the many bases for our overwhelming rejection of communism or any other form of dictatorship. We object to a closed system, a completed ideology. Is there not yet, however, a tendency in higher education, especially at the institutional level, for administrators and faculty heads to say to the public including the students and the younger faculty members themselves: "We know what is good for you. This is the program that we have worked out. Take it." Is there any wonder that, although the public may take it, there is

¹ An address presented before Group 17 of the sixth annual National Conference on Higher Education, Chicago, Illinois, April 2, 1951. Chairman of the group was Robert F. Chandler, Jr., University of New Hampshire; consultant was Stewart Harral, University of Oklahoma; and recorder was Elsie Brenne-man, Illinois State Normal University.

usually vehement discussion, if not open hostility to the program which the public regards as the finished product of a "star chamber" proceeding?

Perhaps we may be too prideful in claiming this as so distinctively an American reaction. Is it not in reality a universal human trait? Have we yet fully understood and applied in public relations the profound understanding and the techniques that may be learned from the master novelists, composers, and dramatists whose great works we teach? Consider how the great novelist lets you come to know early in his book the characters of the story—their ideals and urges and purposes, and the obstacles they must surmount—come to know them so well that you are thoroughly identified with them and you actually participate in all that transpires in their lives. Consider how the great composer teaches you thoroughly the theme of his symphony before he takes you aloft into the intricate and sublime reaches of its climax. Consider the dramatist—how he introduces each person of the play in the first act and gives you intimations of his faults and foibles as well as his potentialities for good or evil.

Have not professors, administrators, and PR directors something yet to learn from the great masters who have much to say, and can say it in such a superb way as to catch our imagination by letting us in on the ground floor and the development as well as the thrilling denouement?

Participation of PR people as contributors to the whole developing program of higher education will do much, we submit, to arrest the tendency of PR to become a cult, separate from education and imitative of the stereotypes of the press. Without becoming a cult, PR may the more rapidly become a profession with its special preparation, understandings, and a unique job to do. That is what the leaders in college PR want—that is what higher education needs. Likewise the public, when it is permitted to see the evolution of the program of higher education, will understand and may be expected to contribute to it in certain ways. It may then even be willing to tolerate with indulgence the vagaries of college personnel, faculty, and students.

At this point I want to say that we applaud the fight being made under the leadership of the National Education Association for the reservation to education of a part of the public domain now being exploited by television. If we needed any further convincing picturization of TV potentialities, we have literally seen it in the televised presentations of the Kefauver hearings, first in New Orleans, then in New York.

I appreciate fully that no paper on college public relations is complete without reference to two important topics which we shall not have time to discuss fully here. I refer to faculty participation and internal communications. To emphasize the latter: to recommend that a great organization involving hundreds of individuals needs better internal communications is to stand on sure ground. Especially is this true of a great university located in a sizable city. It is even more true because of the specialized interests of many of the members of the university, including both faculty and students, and also because of the notorious tendency of professors toward otherworldliness. The large university, along with modern industrial society, suffers because there are too few in it who see the whole picture.

Much is already deliberately being done along these lines but not always in the name of PR or of internal communications. The orientation program, the wider spread of university publications, campus tours, radio, television, and assembly programs, all make important contributions. Much more needs to be done, both in providing regular channels of communication and in encouraging informal communications, vertical and horizontal, to the end that no member of the university shall be without that feeling of belonging, and everyone shall be convinced that his university's problems are his own. Nothing will make for better educational environment for students on the campus and for better alumni relations and better outside public relations. Ultimately, a by-product will be better continuing financial support.

From a personal angle, not least among the benefits of having the PR people part of this Conference has been the opportunity to come to know some rare and sparkling personalities. Two of

these PR friends, in response to my request for suggestions for this speech, presented some important ideas so constructively and pungently that I shall quote them at length (slightly edited). The first one said:

In addition to outlining the necessity and background thinking of our proposal for the statement on common objectives of higher education, how about launching a new bolt, something along these lines . . . Certainly college and university presidents talk enough about problems of higher education, and in their very lack of agreement and particularly in their lack of good timing, their voices are confusing and tend to cancel each other out. Exceptions are the voices of the heads of the great prestige colleges and universities which sometimes receive a notice out of all proportion to the soundness or lack of soundness of the views expressed. If we agree, as I gather we do, that higher education has the important duty of interpreting our problems to the public (and to the government), shouldn't we examine the work of our great educational associations which commonly represent finally the synthesis of opinion, in making this interpretation to the public and to the government?

At present, only through these associations, regional and national, can the voices of the smaller colleges and of the younger colleges and of the special colleges be heard at all. While a prominent university president may persuade the nation that higher education is behind one particular philosophy, the great majority of college presidents may agree on quite another, yet fail to have their great weight of opinion felt, even though they reach agreement on the basis of more grass-roots experience in more areas affecting more students than is the case with the "name" spokesman. What I'm getting at is this: The common denominator of opinions is arrived at in educational associations sometimes organized on vertical, sometimes on horizontal lines. What are the educational associations doing to take advantage of their strength, public-relations-wise, and to use their solidarity and prestige in interpreting their views to the public? Sure, I know that a couple of hasty releases come out of most professional meetings. Usually, however, the "resolutions" committee takes a firm stand on the last day of the conference and issues a statement which appears in the *New York Times*, rarely elsewhere with much force, and then dies.

Let's encourage these groups to build public-relations programs for the groups themselves. Don't let them tell you most of the groups have PR programs because they don't. Most of the groups in higher education don't do anything in PR worthy of the name.

Colleges and universities have discovered PR, although some of them tardily and without full

acceptance, as yet. Isn't the next stage to get additional values out of PR by urging educational associations to adopt PR programs in order to implement what the members are always talking about?

The second PR friend said:

My main difficulty in speaking or writing about public relations is that I come up with such a simple statement of the problem as to appear to be talking about the obvious. The problem is so clear to me that I cannot hammer the table when I state it. I feel as though I am telling someone how to find the court house when the blamed thing is just around the corner! While the problem is easily stated, the solution is most difficult to achieve. The solution could be easily worked out if educators (1) agreed upon the fundamental objectives of education, (2) subordinated themselves to these aims, and (3) secured the services of expert practitioners in public relations to prepare and carry out an intelligent and effective program designed to acquaint the public, or at least the patrons of education, with these objectives.

Perhaps educators, too, think the problem is simple. They may believe that it can be so clearly stated and so easily solved that they can handle their public relations without assistance. In general, it seems, everyone you meet feels that he can take care of any public-relations problem which arises. The only persons I've met who admit their ignorance of public relations and ask for help are a few very intelligent men who got where they are by using the brains and abilities of persons in all professions to achieve their ends. Even some of these, after seeing how easy it looked, tried their hand at public relations without conferring with the PR man who had been assisting them.

This anomalous situation becomes ridiculous when you consider that in their own field—education—they go to the extremes in fostering and recognizing specialization. A professor of mathematics wouldn't dare to teach English composition! On many campuses, however, he wouldn't be stopped if he dabbled in public relations.

Newspapers—or let us say newspaper reporters—do everything in their power to break down an organized public-relations program. Why? One reason is that, Quixote-like, editors and reporters feel that they alone are the guardians of truth and that they must fight the windmill of public relations in order to destroy the purveyors of falsehood. The main reason is that they are looking for sensation, be it true or false, and they fear that public-relations men will cut off their supply, either by preventing sensational news from occurring or by suppressing it when preventive measures fail. How does this sound coming from a journalist?

Disavowing any idea of thought control, I should like to see educators come to some agreement as to the aims and objectives of education and then to stick together behind a solid front when it comes to issuing statements to the public. Details of educational programs can be changed, and, of course, the immediate objectives of a program may change, but educators should have an over-all view and try to implement a program rather than give out irresponsible statements to attract attention and to get their names in print.

The first thing necessary is to do some hard thinking on objectives, and to do some harder thinking on how to implement a program designed to acquaint the public with those objectives. Educators should hold their ground on the things they are sure about, and quit confusing the public on the issues about which they are themselves confused. There will and should be differences of opinion, but the public should not get the impression that even the educators do not know what education is trying to accomplish.

These suggestions bring me to my final major consideration. The National Com-

mittee on Public Relations of the Department of Higher Education, along with many other professional groups and individuals, recognizes that there is no widely acceptable, integrating statement of principles and purposes in American higher education. Unlike many others, it has the strong conviction that such a thing is not impossible. The Committee is thinking of a pronouncement on higher education comparable to that on elementary and secondary education by the late Charles A. Beard entitled "The Unique Function of Education in American Democracy," prepared at the instance of the Educational Policies Commission. Possibly that body can be prevailed on to have prepared such a statement for higher education. Unquestionably, it is one of our great needs. Indeed, it is a starting point for strengthened public relations of higher education.

Chapter 25. Cooperation in Accreditation¹

NORMAN BURNS

North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools

IF all were well in the field of accrediting, this topic would not have been selected as one for discussion at this Conference. All is not well. Almost all of those on the receiving end—some will call them the beneficiaries, others, the victims of accrediting—and many of those on the dispensing end will agree that the present situation, if not already intolerable, bids fair to become intolerable unless something is done. What is the present state of affairs? How did it get this way? What can be done about it?

In many foreign countries unity and consistency of purpose in higher education and the maintenance of standards are achieved by governmental regulation. An omniscient and omnipotent govern-

ment decides who shall be educated, what he shall learn, and how he shall learn it. Such countries are not plagued with the problem we are here considering, and if they were to have a conference on higher education, would not need to set up this section. This, however, has not been our way. Our higher institutions have, with some notable exceptions, been largely free of direct political control. (May I say, parenthetically, that accrediting agencies have at times been helpful where political manipulation has been attempted.)

During the Colonial Period of our history the idea was generally accepted that the provision of higher-educational opportunities was a nongovernmental function; specifically, it was considered to be a function of the church. It is true that government was represented to some extent in both the management and support of some of the colonial colleges. This was due, however, to the fact that leadership in church and state tended to be, in general, one and the same, rather than an acceptance by the

¹ An address presented before Group 18 of the sixth annual National Conference on Higher Education, Chicago, Illinois, April 2, 1951. Chairman of the group was E. R. Jobe, Mississippi Institutions of Higher Learning; consultant was H. B. Allman, Indiana University; and recorder was Vernon L. Mangun, Mary Hardin-Baylor College.

state of the responsibility to provide and regulate higher education. Ideationally, these colleges were private.

During the Revolutionary Period the atmosphere changed. The influence of French thought resulted in an active sentiment in this country favoring governmental control and regulation of higher education. Had this type of thinking prevailed, we might well have ultimately adopted the French pattern of centralized governmental control. For a time some of the states did move actively in the direction of taking over the controls of existing colleges. In fact, the status of privately controlled higher education was at that time very much in doubt, and remained so until the Dartmouth College Case decision rendered by the Supreme Court in 1819. In this decision the court ruled that a charter was a contract and was therefore inviolable.

State-controlled institutions began to emerge as a significant part of the higher-educational scene in the years following the Civil War. The entrance of these institutions upon the scene served to intensify the competition among the already large and rapidly growing number of weak and struggling higher institutions. The need for some degree of standardization in American higher education was apparent.

Government showed little disposition to take a hand in the situation. The tradition of governmental noninterference in the regulation of higher education was by this time well established. On only one occasion has an agency of the Federal Government attempted to move in the direction of general regulation of higher education. This took place early in the present century when the Bureau of Education of the Federal Government was persuaded to prepare a list of colleges classified on the basis of quality. There was a storm of protest, and the list was never published.

The several states did, it is true, begin to set certain standards to be met by institutions whose graduates would be certified for teaching in the public schools. For the most part, however, the states were not at that time, nor have they since that time, been very effective in the regulation of higher institutions. Even in the case of insti-

tutions under state control and receiving state support, the states have made little effort to assure, through direct action, a satisfactory level of quality. Our traditions demand that state higher institutions be controlled by lay boards which are removed as far as possible from political or bureaucratic control.

Efforts to bring about some standardization took a variety of forms. The College Entrance Board, established in 1900, worked toward the standardization of entrance requirements through the issuance of statements as to the subject-matter to be included in the preparation of students planning to try the Board's college-entrance examinations.

The General Education Board, established in the early years of the 20th Century, contributed to the standardization process through gathering and classifying data on colleges. Its purpose was to develop a basis for selecting the more promising institutions which would receive grants from the foundation.

The Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, which also came into existence shortly after the turn of the century, had for its purpose the establishment of a plan for providing retirement allowances for college faculty members, but the Foundation found it necessary first to decide which of the many institutions calling themselves colleges were actually entitled to that name. To this end the Foundation adopted this definition of a college: "An institution to be ranked as a college must have at least six professors giving their entire time to college and university work, a course of four full years in liberal arts and sciences, and should require for admission, not less than the usual four years of academic or high-school preparation, or its equivalent, in addition to the preacademic or grammar-school studies." Standardization was coming to American higher education.

During this same period higher institutions themselves initiated efforts looking toward a raising of the level of higher education. These efforts led to the formation of what came to be called voluntary accrediting agencies. One of the most influential of these was the Association of American Universities, established in 1900 and originally com-

posed of 14 of the large universities. Its purpose initially was to consider matters of mutual interest in the area of graduate study. Shortly after its establishment, in response to pressures from some of the German universities which required some evidence that American students seeking admission to their programs of graduate study had been graduated from institutions of recognized quality, the Association set up a list of approved institutions. The fundamental basis for approval of an institution was the performance of recent graduates in graduate and professional schools.

Voluntary accrediting by institutions themselves on a regional basis also had its start during the latter part of the 19th Century. There are today six such agencies: the Middle States Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, the New England Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools,² the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, the Northwest Association of Secondary and Higher Schools, the Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, and the Western College Association. Together, these agencies blanket the entire country. They are voluntary, extralegal associations of educational institutions which exist for the purpose of improving education through setting up criteria of excellence which must be met as a condition of membership.

The desperate need for standardization and upgrading was not confined to general collegiate programs. One's impression of the inadequacies of American higher education 50 years ago is heightened when he turns from general collegiate instruction to education for the practice of the professions. For example, during the 19th Century most medical practitioners secured their training through apprenticeship or, even worse, through attendance at proprietary medical schools. Many of these schools were distinguished mainly by their complete indifference to the need for facilities, equipment, and a regular course of

study. Their major objective was to enhance the profits of the institution through collecting as much as possible in student fees. Dental education was in a similar disreputable state.

Groups of professional persons as well as reputable educators recognized the serious social implications of inadequately prepared practitioners. In 1904 the American Medical Association set up its Council on Medical Education which later became the Council on Medical Education and Hospitals. The Council formulated standards for medical education and embarked on a program of visitation and rating of medical schools. Medical educators as well as practitioners were cognizant of the need for better medical education and, through the Association of American Medical Colleges, worked in close cooperation with the American Medical Association. The conspicuous success of these agencies in raising the quality of medical education is well known. Similar progress toward higher standards was made through the efforts of the American Dental Association in the field of dental education, and the American Bar Association and the Association of American Law Schools, in the field of legal education.

Over the years professional groups and professional schools in the fields of music, theology, forestry, social work, pharmacy, engineering, chemistry, architecture, business administration, journalism, nursing, and others have established accrediting agencies in the interest of strengthening the educational programs in their fields and upgrading their professions.

Voluntary accrediting has accomplished much in improving the quality of American higher education. On this point there is general agreement, even among the critics of accrediting. Why, then, the growing dissatisfaction with accrediting—a dissatisfaction so great that some eminent educators have called for an end to all accrediting? What are the problems that are so serious as to have resulted in the formation of a national organization of colleges and universities which has for its sole purpose the protection of the interests of higher institutions against the encroachments of accrediting agencies?

² The New England Association does not call itself an accrediting agency. It does, however, have standards for membership similar to those required by the other regional agencies.

The objections raised against accrediting may be summarized as follows: First, accrediting agencies have become too numerous, and new agencies are continually being added to the large number already in existence. This objection has a number of different aspects. For one thing, the proliferation of agencies is accompanied by constantly rising costs to the institutions, since each agency assesses fees to be paid by the beneficiaries of its services. Also, since each agency operates with virtual autonomy, the multiplication of agencies imposes on the institutions a constantly increasing burden of reporting. The latter problem is intensified in that a number of different agencies may seek certain general information, each one asking for the information in a slightly different form.

Second, and more serious than the mere multiplicity of accrediting agencies is the objection that the individual agencies set requirements governing administrative organization, curriculum, faculty, and physical facilities without regard to the need for maintaining a proper balance among the various activities of the institution. The subject-matter fields or schools in which an accrediting agency is operating are in a position to claim a disproportionate share of institutional resources at the expense of the unorganized areas. The natural tendency for the parts of the program suffering this disadvantage is to organize accrediting agencies of their own in order to improve their bargaining position. So the proliferation of agencies continues.

A third objection is that the requirements imposed by accrediting agencies are frequently stated in terms of highly specific, quantitative standards, the validity of which as measures of quality can well be questioned. The imposition of a large number of specific requirements tends to force all institutions into the same pattern, and the freedom of the individual institution to devise and carry on well-conceived experiments looking toward improvement of the educational program is seriously restricted.

Finally, it is charged that accrediting has, in some measure, taken on some of the characteristics of trade unionism, in that it has appeared to operate to

restrict the number of persons prepared for professional practice. This criticism relates to the control of certain areas of accrediting by practitioners in the field.

Other objections to present-day accrediting practices could be cited, but these are the major categories. They add up to this: accrediting agencies have invaded the jurisdiction of institutional governing boards, administrative officers, and faculties. As the Preamble to the Constitution of the recently organized National Commission on Accrediting states: "The over-all strength of the entire system of higher education derives in large part from the unique and diversified contributions of individual colleges and universities. This strength can be maintained and extended only if the institutions are free to experiment in the ways and means of education, and to determine their own objectives. They must be free to exercise both responsibility and authority in administering their programs."

We come now to our final question. What can be done about it? I cannot accept the answer of some educators that accrediting has served its purpose, that the need for it no longer exists, and that it should therefore be abolished. Even if this solution were practicable, I believe it would be unwise. Even to the casual observer it is apparent that higher education has not everywhere reached that state of perfection in which all institutions can be relied upon to maintain a high level of quality in all areas of their work. The consumers of higher education are still in need of protection against those institutions which are doing work of something less than satisfactory grade. Society is still in need of protection against the inadequately prepared professional practitioner.

Neither can I subscribe to the proposition that the several states assume the responsibility for all accrediting. The records of most of the states in the areas in which they have carried on accrediting activities are far from impressive. In far too many instances the pressures of political expediency have precluded real discrimination among institutions on qualitative grounds.

The answer to the question, "What can be done about the current situation?" would seem to lie, first, in coordination

of accrediting activities and, second, in the cooperation of accrediting agencies with the institutions they accredit. We have recently seen some salutary developments along both these lines. I have already commented on the lack of coordination among the special-interest groups concerned with particular aspects of higher education. Not only among the special-interest groups but within some of the groups as well, the situation in this regard has been far from satisfactory. In some of the professional fields two or more agencies have been simultaneously carrying on accrediting activities. In some fields practitioners, educators, and licensure officials have operated at least with disregard for the activities of the other groups, if not in actual competition with each other.

Progress is being made toward the alleviation of such conditions. In the field of nursing education the several agencies which formerly carried on accrediting activities have been combined under a single agency, the National Nursing Accrediting Service. Progress is being made in the field of social-work education to bring together in a single agency the multiple accrediting activities being carried on in that field. The practitioners, educators, and licensing boards concerned with pharmacy education have combined to form the American Council on Pharmaceutical Education, the accrediting agency for that field. The Engineers' Council for Professional Development, the accrediting agency for engineering programs, represents the combined interests of a number of engineering societies which formerly operated independently. The Council on Medical Education and Hospitals of the American Medical Association and the Association of American Medical Colleges, which have collaborated informally for many years, now have a formal liaison committee for accrediting purposes. Other illustrations of this type of development could be cited, but these examples are sufficient to illustrate the movement toward intra-group cooperation in accrediting matters.

Not much progress has been made in the matter of interagency cooperation, but there is one development of this sort which holds some promise. The National Committee of Regional Accrediting

Agencies, representative of the six regional agencies, was recently formed to consider mutual problems relating to policy, criteria, and procedures. It is hoped that in time it may be possible to extend the membership of the Committee to include representation from the accrediting bodies in the professional fields. Such an agency could accomplish much in promoting the acceptance of a common philosophy of accrediting, consistency in practices among the agencies, and the reduction of overlapping among the agencies in inspecting and reporting.

A significant attempt to preserve the benefits of accrediting, while at the same time eliminating some of the evils, is being made by the newly-organized National Commission on Accrediting. This Commission was created by agreement among the following national associations: the Association of American Colleges, the Association of American Universities, the Association of Land-Grant Colleges and Universities, the Association of Urban Universities, and the National Association of State Universities. The Commission recognizes that accrediting has served and can continue to serve a useful social purpose; it proposes, however, to protect institutional integrity and freedom of action against unreasonable and undesirable encroachments of accrediting agencies. The Constitution of the Commission states that the Commission shall: (1) study and investigate present accrediting practices with a view to establishing satisfactory standards, procedures, and principles of accrediting, to correct abuses, and to support the freedom and integrity of our member institutions; (2) define the accrediting responsibility of the several agencies; (3) prepare and distribute a list of accrediting agencies whose policies and procedures are acceptable to the Commission; (4) coordinate the activities of the approved accrediting agencies in order to avoid duplication and overlapping of functions and to reduce costs; (5) cooperate with foundations, agencies of government, and educational organizations with respect to matters of joint interest in the field of accrediting; (6) establish, promote, or direct research programs for the purpose of improving methods and techniques of accrediting;

(7) collect and publish information on higher education pertinent to accrediting; (8) establish a method or procedure whereby member institutions may present grievances with respect to actions of accrediting agencies; (9) study, review, and make recommendations with respect to state and federal legislation and rulings involving accrediting as well as the legal status and powers of accrediting agencies.

As a first step in carrying out its purposes, the National Commission on Accrediting has set up committees to meet with representatives of the several accrediting agencies.

The developments which have been discussed here indicate clearly a widespread interest in improving the conditions that have come to exist. They represent a laudable attempt on the part of those concerned with accrediting to solve their own problems, and I am sure that much good will come of these efforts. I believe, however, that we cannot be wholly successful in eliminating the objectionable features of accrediting unless we keep constantly before us as a guide to action, first, the basic purpose of accrediting which is the improvement of education, and, second, the implications of that basic purpose for accrediting procedures. This may at first glance appear to be platitudinous, but I think I can show that it is not.

Every accrediting agency accepts this purpose as the basis for its activities. Supporting this basic purpose are two commonly held and frequently stated principles of accrediting. These principles are: (1) The emphasis in accrediting should be on qualitative appraisal of institutional achievement rather than on the imposition of arbitrarily conceived quantitative standards. An important element in the qualitative approach is evaluation of a program in terms of the professed objectives of the institution and abandonment of rigid "standardization." Also implied is a judging of quality in terms of the total pattern presented by an institution or a program—a weighing of the elements of strength against the elements of weakness rather than denial of accrediting because of failure to meet one or more specific requirements. (2) the emphasis in accrediting should be on the stimulation

of self-generated and self-conducted programs of institutional study and experimentation looking toward continuing improvement in the educational process rather than on the policing of higher education.

These are good principles. I believe that they provide the means by which accrediting agencies can contribute to the improvement of higher education. They imply, however, a higher degree of democratization of the accrediting process than has been achieved. Let us examine actual practice in the light of these principles.

The shift from a purely quantitative approach to acceptance of the notion of qualitative appraisal which began a number of years ago has been hailed by accreditor and accretee alike as a marked improvement in the procedure for accrediting higher institutions. I am not so sure that the institutions and agencies which have endorsed the idea with such enthusiasm have given careful enough consideration to the means by which a qualitative appraisal may be made. Actually, in putting the idea into practice two things have been done. In the first place, quantitative measures are still used. It is true that only those quantitative measures which are presumably related to quality are used, but this has always been the presumption when quantitative measures were employed. There have been a few attempts to establish the validity of quantitative measures as indicators of quality through scientific study. Nevertheless, in most cases the relationship between quantitative measures and quality has been assumed by those who set up the standards, usually with little, if any, collaboration with the institutions to be evaluated. This has been true whether the approach was admittedly quantitative or professedly qualitative.

Even though it may be possible to determine through scientific study the relationship at a given time between certain quantitative measures and institutional quality, one has no assurance that such relationships will continue to exist without change. In fact, the very use of particular qualitative measures over a period of time tends to destroy their validity inasmuch as the institutions tend to concentrate their attention

on effecting improvement in their standing on these specific items without necessarily strengthening the total program. If qualitative measures are not to become outmoded, they must be continuously reevaluated. Under present accrediting practices such continuing reevaluation is none too common.

The other thing that is done in putting the qualitative idea of accrediting into practice is to set up qualitative criteria which cannot be reduced to quantitative terms. The following might be taken as an illustration of such a criterion: an institution should offer such courses of instruction as are appropriate to the purposes of the institution, and the curriculum should be so organized as to offer assurance that these purposes will be accomplished. Subcriteria relative to general education, advanced and professional courses of study might then be set down in similar terms.

Criteria of this kind admittedly and inevitably abandon any pretence of scientific objectivity; they depend on subjective judgment. Under present accrediting procedures, primary reliance is, of necessity, placed on the judgments of the examiners. Even persons with reputations for high competence and who are free of prejudices will differ in their judgments. The fallibility of human judgment is a serious matter when the status of an institution in the educational world is at stake.

A democratization of the accrediting process which would permit the institutions being appraised to play an active role in the process is essential if the inevitable errors in judgment are to be minimized. Before developing this statement let us consider the second of the principles noted above—that the emphasis in the accrediting process should be on the stimulation of self-generated and self-conducted programs of institutional study and experimentation looking toward continuing improvement in the educational process rather than on the policing of higher education.

Present practice in accrediting does not maximize stimulation and minimize policing. It is true that some institutions engage in a program of self-study in anticipation of the visit of an examining committee, but the accrediting process as it is commonly carried on does not

provide direct encouragement of this type of activity. The process usually starts when an institution submits its application for accreditation. If it is the kind of institution or offers the kind of program that falls within the purview of the accrediting agency, its application is accepted and it is asked to provide the agency with information in greater or less detail about its program. (In the case of a new accrediting agency, the initiative may be taken by the agency rather than by the institution, but the remainder of the process is the same.) The institution is then visited by an examining committee which checks on the data which have been submitted, gathers additional information, makes its judgments, and reports its findings to the appropriate committee of the accrediting agency. The institution has nothing to do but wait for the decision to be handed down. Its part in the process is purely passive.

This type of procedure is not without its stimulatory aspects. The gathering and assembling of the data required by the accrediting agency may be a valuable experience for the institution. The institution may profit from whatever comments the examiners make during the course of the inspection. The report of the examiners should be a helpful guide to future action. Nevertheless, what stimulation may be provided is incidental. The major outcome expected of the accrediting process is the determination of the status of the institution, and the process is set up with this end in view. The emphasis is still largely on policing rather than the stimulation of self-improvement.

I made the statement earlier that the principles of qualitative appraisal and institutional stimulation can be more effectively put into practice only if the accrediting process is democratized. I should like now to consider the ways in which this democratization can be brought about.

Democratization as used here involves a larger measure of institutional participation, both in the original formulation and revision of criteria or standards to be employed, and in the operation of the accrediting process itself. In the formulation and revision of criteria some, but not all of the agencies, provide for some

measure of institutional participation. In some agencies the criteria are first formulated and approved by a committee or committees representative of the institutions that comprise the association and are then presented to the entire membership for approval before they are put into operation. Such approval is, however, likely to be secured in a large general meeting in which there is little opportunity for anything other than *pro forma* acceptance of the recommendations.

I do not mean to imply that this is always the case. The Cooperative Study of Secondary School Standards, for example, provides for wide institutional participation in the formulation and revision of standards. I am merely urging that this type of approach be more generally adopted. The process should be something like this: new or revised criteria should be formulated on a tentative basis by a small group or groups; the statement of tentative criteria should then be distributed widely among the institutions concerned with a request for institutional reaction as to the validity of the proposed criteria when applied to a particular institution; the way should be open for sectional group meetings, workshops, or some other arrangement whereby the tentative criteria could be discussed by institutional representatives. Only after such extended consideration should the criteria be adopted.

Acceptance of the idea of widespread participation in the formulation of evaluative criteria and establishment of the channels for securing it would also encourage the kind of continuing reappraisal of the criteria which is essential if a static condition is to be avoided and the necessary degree of flexibility in the accrediting process maintained.

The adoption of such procedures would certainly be helpful in translating into action the principle of institutional stimulation. It should also be helpful in implementing the idea of qualitative evaluation in that the relationship of particular criteria to quality would be under continuing scrutiny by the institutions themselves.

The other aspect of the problem of the democratization of the accrediting

process relates to the appraisal or reappraisal of particular institutions. Here there is much less democracy in accrediting practice than in the formulation of evaluative criteria. As I have pointed out, the institution's role is an almost completely passive one. It is on trial and, though it usually has an opportunity to speak in its own defense, it has little to do other than await the decision of the judges.

I have already expressed my misgivings as to the way in which the qualitative approach is being put into practice. I have also indicated my doubts that the accrediting process actually emphasizes institutional stimulation toward self-improvement rather than the policing function. I believe the answer lies in large part in more active participation in the accrediting process on the part of the institution being appraised. With that in mind I suggest the following procedures:

1. When an institution applied for accreditation, it would be asked to submit evidence that it had been engaged in a program of self-evaluation. This evidence would be provided in a comprehensive report prepared by the institution in which it analyzed in detail its operations, their appropriateness to its avowed objectives, the elements of strength and weakness, and the institution's reasons for believing it should be accredited. Where, in the opinion of the institution, certain of the criteria of the accrediting agency were not appropriate to its particular situation, it would state its reasons for questioning the criteria. The institution would also provide whatever factual data the accrediting body might request.

2. The submission of the institution's report would be followed by a visit of examiners appointed by the accrediting body. The examiners would have been provided in advance of the visit with a copy of the institution's report and the factual information requested by the accrediting body. The examiners would submit a report of their findings based on their appraisal of the institution in terms of the evaluative criteria employed by the accrediting agency.

3. The accrediting committee of the agency would meet with representatives of the institution and the examining committee to discuss both the institution's report and the examiners' report.

4. On the basis of the two reports and the discussion, the accrediting committee would reach a decision as to the status of the institution. As is now true in most accrediting

agencies, the decision of the accrediting committee would be in the form of a recommendation to the membership of the association.

The same type of procedure would be employed in the reevaluation of institutions already accredited. I am convinced that general adoption of this principle by accrediting agencies would constitute

a significant forward step in the accomplishment of the major function of accrediting—the improvement of higher education through stimulating institutions to study their programs and experiment with ways of strengthening them under procedures which would emphasize quality rather than quantity.

Chapter 26. Integrating High-School and College Education¹

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WITH one foot in a war of limited objectives and one in an expanded program of peacetime economy we face the future with uncertainty, if not with cross-purposes. Education today is called upon to prepare youth to perform the duties of both war and peace. What particular responsibilities the colleges will assume, however, have not been fully resolved.

In this setting a discussion of integrating high-school and college education is timely and vital. There is a need to clarify problems, to agree upon guiding principles, and to suggest promising procedures for improving school and college relations. Conferences such as this one constitute an important means for promoting better articulation.

THE PERSPECTIVE OF SCHOOL AND COLLEGE RELATIONS

It is futile to engage further in non-constructive criticisms of high-school education. Harold W. Stoke has suggested that we should begin with a discussion of what we expect the college graduate to become. His idea is that we may thus be better enabled to determine what qualifications are required by those who aspire to pursue a college career.

¹ An address presented before Group 19 of the sixth annual National Conference on Higher Education, Chicago, Illinois, April 2, 1951. Chairman of the group was Albert E. Meder, Jr., Rutgers University; consultant was Edwin P. Adkins, Glenville State College; and recorder was Clarence Von Eschen, Beloit College.

² Stoke, Harold W. "Changing Responsibilities for College Preparation." *College Board Review* 13: 171-174; February, 1951.

According to Mr. Stoke, the college product of today can best be characterized as a "man of competence." The goal of competence is explained by the fact that ours is an age of power, in which "every phase of education these days which shows vitality or attraction is devoted in some way to the direct purpose of obtaining or managing power."² The acceptance of competence as a goal carries with it the danger of producing specialists who are narrow and selfish. Certainly the colleges must produce operators, technicians, scientists, and managers qualified to produce a greater volume and variety of goods and services to meet the demands of our expanding economy. There is nothing inherent in this goal, however, which precludes the development of socially sensitive and responsible persons.

HISTORICAL BACKGROUND OF SCHOOL AND COLLEGE RELATIONS

Historically the early high school in America was sired by the colleges. In fact, the high school was part and parcel of the college and was therefore quite closely articulated with it in purpose and program. Its exclusive object was to prepare likely young men to enter college where they might study for one of the professions. The Latin grammar school, and the academies which followed, were largely college-preparatory in character.

The break in the continuity between high-school and college education became pronounced prior to 1900, and coincided with the establishment of secondary schools for the masses. An unfortunate outcome of early efforts to

integrate high-school and college education was the definition of credit in terms of the "Carnegie Unit." The almost universal adoption of this device resulted in putting undue emphasis upon quantitative aspects of school experience, such as time served and topics covered, to the neglect of qualitative outcomes in terms of skills, understandings, and appreciations. Furthermore, the employment of the "Carnegie Unit" by accrediting agencies in setting up standards for graduation from accredited high schools has contributed to the disturbing fact that getting a high-school education consists largely in accumulating a specified number of credits, in prescribed fields, with passing marks in the subjects involved. This invidious practice has also invaded college education in the form of hour requirements for defining majors and minors and for determining graduation. College education has become even more fragmented than high-school education.

IMPROVING COLLEGE-ADMISSIONS POLICIES AND PRACTICES

College-admissions policies and practices have a direct bearing upon the problem of articulating high-school and college education. It is proposed here that admission to college be regarded as a process, rather than an act; it should be a series of related procedures and coordinated decisions, not merely a decision reached by checking transcripts against published or unpublished requirements. Under this concept the process is conceived to have time dimensions that extend back at least to the junior year of high school, and forward beyond the periods of registration and orientation in college. If this idea is accepted, the determination and execution of admissions policies and procedures involve the cooperative efforts of high-school and college people, of teachers and administrators, of parents and pupils.

College-admissions policies and procedures should be designed to accomplish two major ends. The first object is to select those students who show some promise of being able to benefit by experiences gained in college. The second is to facilitate the flow of qualified students into college without affecting adversely the curricular experiences of those who do not go to college.

The criteria for determining college fitness are becoming more flexible and dependable. Inflexible and discredited requirements stated in terms of patterns of academic sequences are being replaced by criteria that place a greater emphasis upon aptitudes, habits of work, and interest—upon evidences of physical, social, and emotional maturity. For example, under the Michigan Secondary-School-College Agreement, colleges have agreed to disregard the patterns of courses taken in high school and to admit students from selected schools provided they are recommended by the schools as being among the more able students in the graduating class. The agreement does not mean, however, that students must be admitted to certain courses or curricula for which they cannot give evidence of adequate preparation.³

The Illinois Committee on Relations with Higher Institutions has recently recommended the use of the following criteria: (1) score on a scholastic-aptitude test; (2) score on a test of critical reading; (3) score on a test of writing skill; (4) score on a simple mathematical test; and (5) evidence that the student has an intellectual interest and some effective study habits as shown by his having taken at least two years of work in one field in high school in which his grades were better than average.⁴

As bases for improving articulation through admissions policies and practices, it is recommended that colleges (1) abandon requirements stated exclusively in terms of patterns of high-school credits; (2) adopt more flexible and dependable requirements, such as those proposed in the Illinois plan; (3) state requirements for admission in terms of competence related to success in college; (4) disseminate information concerning requirements to high schools

³ Waskin, Leo S. "The Michigan Secondary School-College Agreement." *The Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals*, 33:49-64, January, 1949.

⁴ Illinois Secondary School Curriculum Program, Bulletin No. 9, *New College Admission Requirements Recommended*, p. 14. Curricular Series A, No. 51. State Department of Public Instruction, Springfield, Illinois, 1950.

in more understandable terms; (5) utilize high-school teachers and administrators, as well as college teachers and counselors, in cooperatively determining admissions policies and practices.

ARTICULATING GUIDANCE SERVICES

The function of guidance and student-personnel service both in the high school and in college is to counsel and guide youth to reach a position in the community which is satisfying to them and which is commensurate with their abilities, interests, and needs, as well as with the needs of the community. Guidance thus defined is closely related to teaching. It involves in-school and out-of-school experiences, choice of vocations, preparation for further schooling and for life work.

Recent surveys reveal improvements in guidance programs and services, especially in the areas of educational and vocational planning, in orientation and bridging-the-gap activities, in preparing trained workers, and in evaluation techniques. Against this brightening picture must be cast the knowledge that there is yet a lack of continuity, comprehensiveness, and quality in the guidance services of many schools and colleges. In a recent significant study of school and college relations, Messrs. Pattillo and Stout point to certain areas of dissatisfaction, as viewed by both high-school and college people.⁵ In the light of these and other observations, the following suggestions are offered for improving the guidance services of colleges:

1. Colleges should provide high schools with more adequate information concerning courses and programs, competencies required for success in college, specific admissions requirements and procedures, and the caliber of students enrolled.

⁵ Pattillo, Manning M., Jr., and Stout, Lorence. "Co-operation Between Secondary Schools and Colleges." A Report Prepared for the Committee on High School-College Relations of the North Central Association. *North Central Association Quarterly*, Vol. 25: 311-345; January 1951. (Available as a Reprint for general distribution.)

⁶ McClane, Douglas V. (editor). *Mapping Your Education, A Guide to Planned Education*. A Cooperative Project of the Interstate Council on High School-College Relations. (Part I written by Merle S. Kuder). Abbott, Kerns & Bell Company, Portland, Oregon, 1950.

dents enrolled. (An excellent example of an effective handbook for students is *Mapping Your Education, A Guide to Planned Education*, prepared as a cooperative project of the Interstate Council on High School-College Relations in the states of Oregon and Washington.)⁶

2. Colleges should relate their guidance services, curricula, and teaching methods, as well as admissions practices to meet the particular needs of their clientele and to accord with the findings of recent research in education. This recommendation implies that the colleges should utilize effective tools and techniques for selecting youth for college and for placing them in suitable courses.

3. The colleges should cooperate by furnishing testing services to high schools where needed and requested, by educating teachers in the philosophy and techniques of guidance and counseling, and by promoting cooperative studies of the records of students who graduate and of those who drop out before graduation. Colleges should stress the importance of conditioning the student early in high school for college life.

4. Information should be furnished to high schools on such matters as: (a) academic standing of students, (b) reasons for failure to adjust in college, (c) student deficiencies that show up in college, and (d) acceptance or rejection of students for admission, with reasons therefor.

5. Visits made by college representatives to high schools should be made for the purpose of helping the student select a college and a program suited to his needs, rather than merely for recruitment purposes. (The "High School-College Conference Plan," developed by the Washington High School-College Conference Committee, offers excellent suggestions along this line.)

6. Colleges should request that high schools send in only such information about applicants as is really needed and will be utilized for admissions, placement, and guidance purposes.

7. Counseling services should be coordinated within institutions.

8. Clinics should be established and staffed by skilled workers. Stephens College, for example, has clinics in health, psychological service, clothing and personal appearance, reading, writing, speech, and in other areas.

ARTICULATING CURRICULAR PROGRAMS

Perhaps the weakest link in the educational chain is the lack of continuity between curricular programs of high schools and colleges. Wide gaps, as well as needless duplications, exist in programs in general education. Admittedly, many high-school graduates come to col-

lege inadequately qualified to pursue programs in specialized education, in spite of the fact that the high-school curriculum is generally loaded with specialized college-preparatory subject-matter.

The problems of articulation for publically supported institutions of higher education are more complicated than those of private and independent colleges with highly selected students. In both instances, the basic responsibilities are (1) to take the student as he is and to help him develop as fully as his abilities and motivation will permit and (2) to carry him as far as the objectives and facilities of the college will allow.

Articulating programs of general education. A study of the literature indicates substantial agreement as to the functions of general education, but sharp disagreements as to the means for achieving those functions. The use of varied means for accomplishing common ends is commendable, provided outcomes expressed in terms of behaviors and attitudes of people square with objectives sought. Here is where the main discrepancy lies.

Since high-school education terminates formal schooling for the majority of students, education designed to prepare every person to perform well the duties of citizen, parent, and neighbor should be a major concern of the secondary school. Until high-school education is extended to include the 13th and 14th years for the majority, there is strong justification for planning a well-rounded program of general education in high school. If this results in some duplication for the minority who go on to college, perhaps the price is not too great to pay. Having said this certainly does not argue against continuing general education in college, nor does it preclude efforts on the part of colleges to build on the learnings which their freshmen bring to college.

If the high school does a satisfactory job of preparing students for effective living as good citizens in the community, it may be providing at the same time sound education for those who should go on to college. Bryant Drake, President of Doane College, once put it this way: "They're not ready for college if they're not ready for life." The view may

well be taken that the additional special knowledges and skills required for success in college can be mastered at the latter part of high-school attendance or during the early period of college life.

The following suggestions are offered as possible guides for improving the continuity of general education in high schools and college.

1. Colleges should build their general-education programs for the first two years on the assumption that entering students have completed certain phases of their general education in high school. Increasingly "common learnings" are being stressed in high schools. Life-adjustment Education, including both general and specialized education, while designed originally for the so-called last "60 per cent" who are not prepared either for college or for life work, is also influencing the quality of education for college-bound youth.

2. Colleges should request high schools to furnish more meaningful and detailed descriptions of the attainments of entering students. The high schools, on the other hand, should expect colleges to indicate the kinds of information desired.

3. Since the scope and quality of education vary greatly among secondary schools, and since the achievements of individual students will likewise vary, colleges should employ placement tests more extensively to determine the level of skill attainment of entering freshmen. Use should also be made of inventories, rating scales, and other devices to get as complete a picture as possible of the individual for guidance and placement purposes.

4. Provisions should be made in college for differentiated courses to meet the needs of particular groups of students. What has often been overlooked is that general education does not mean the same, or a standard program for all. Levels of education can and should be recognized here as in specialized education.

5. Clinics and special laboratory sections in such areas as the language arts, mathematics, and health should be set up for students whose skills are below the standard required for successful work in general and in specialized education. It cannot be assumed that the individual will rectify his own deficiencies without systematic direction and aid from the college.

6. The colleges should initiate and sponsor cooperative-area and statewide programs of curriculum development, based on extensive research, to determine which materials and methods of general education are best suited to needs and maturity of high-school students and which to college students. Many promising curriculum projects are under way in Michigan, Minnesota, Illinois, California, Ohio, and

Indiana, to mention only a few states referred to in recent literature on the subject.

7. Colleges should recognize that the general level of education in the secondary school and college will be no higher than the quality of the teachers and administrators furnished. Colleges should therefore strive to improve pre-service education for secondary-school staffs, as well as for college staffs.

Articulating programs of specialized education. Colleges have a right to expect high schools to prepare students to enter programs of specialization in college, provided the special college-preparatory courses thus offered for the few do not limit offerings needed by the majority. The chief problem here lies in the limited offerings of the typical high school.

High schools have a right to expect colleges to provide definite information as to the kinds and levels of skills required for success in the specializations. And the colleges should base their decisions as to those persons best qualified to enter the specializations in terms of the results of tests, rather than in terms of units of credit. Finally, the colleges should recognize that preparatory courses in the several specializations must be scheduled in college for the benefit of capable students entering from schools with limited offerings.

ARTICULATING PROGRAMS FOR PERSONAL AND SOCIAL ADJUSTMENTS

High-school graduates coming to college must adjust almost overnight to lecture and laboratory methods, to teaching standards, and to testing procedures quite different from those found in the usual high school. They must also compete for status with more select groups than found in high school. In addition, they must adjust to their newly-found freedoms, budget time and money resources, select companions, and choose pastime activities.

Should college teachers follow the career of one or more students through

four years of college life, they might be in a better frame of mind to help make the transition of students to and through college a smoother and more valuable experience. Also, if college teachers from all fields should visit high schools occasionally to learn firsthand what the high schools are trying to do for their clientele, and what some of the high-school problems are, they would be in a better position to adapt college methods, materials, and standards more realistically to the needs of youth. Surely there is a common ground whereby failures in college may be greatly reduced, and whereby standards may be raised instead of lowered.

SUMMARY

The greatest opportunity for improving the continuity of high-school and college education seems to lie in raising the quality of teaching and guidance services at both levels. The college has the chief responsibility for initiating programs of improvement. The common concern for both colleges and secondary schools should be to help young people become useful and productive citizens in American communities. Interest in further schooling for potential leaders should be fostered early and programs for preparing them should be complete and effective. The transition of the student from the protected environment of the home and school to the relatively unsupervised life on the college campus, and finally to a useful position in community life, should be made as smooth and effective as possible.

The major role of the college is to develop leaders who can and will assume responsibilities for improving our economic, political, social, and educational institutions at all levels, local, state, national, and international. If this task is done well, we need have no fear that our schools and colleges will continue to turn out superficial and undisciplined citizens.

Chapter 27. Emerging Patterns of Higher Education at the Community Level¹

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UNDER the topic, "Emerging Patterns of Higher Education at the Community Level," it is difficult to know just what we are trying to consider. If the term "higher education" is interpreted as being exclusively concerned with the development of superior academic competencies of an intellectual "elite," our discussion will probably take only a few minutes. At the community level under such a limited definition there is not too much to report in the way of emerging patterns.

If our interpretation of "higher education" is broadened, however, to include continued formal instruction for a majority of high-school graduates, there are enough problems involved in the concept to keep our discussions moving during the sessions scheduled for us. Patterns may not be clearly outlined, but there are several programs under development that we could examine. The technical-institute plan, the area-vocational-school plan, and the undergraduate-center or university-extension-center plan are examples. If we are ready to expand our interpretation of "higher education" still further to include all types of educational opportunities and services that might be extended to any person during his years of maturity, our discussions of the next few days could be genuinely exciting.

There are, of course, semantic difficulties involved also in the use of the terms "emerging patterns" and "community level." These, however, ought not to present serious barriers to communication among us. The term "higher education" may become as unfortunate, misleading, and inadequate a combina-

tion of words as "junior college" and "terminal education" have proved to be.

The present unrest among students and staff on the American college campus reflects powerful off-campus forces. More people seek more education than ever before. Social and economic changes demand it. There is an awareness among people everywhere that yesterday's learning is not enough for tomorrow and that tomorrow's will not suffice for the day after tomorrow.

The number of live births has increased tremendously in recent years, from about two million to over three and one-half million annually. No appreciable decline is in prospect. Already our elementary schools are bulging. The holding power of these schools, moreover, has steadily improved over a long period of years. The 1950-census figures on school attendance are revealing:

| PER CENT OF TOTAL AGE GROUPS ATTENDING SCHOOL IN 1950 | |
|--|---|
| Age | Per Cent of Total Age Group in School |
| 5-6 | 37% |
| 7-9 | 95 |
| 10-13 | 96 |
| 14-17 | 84 |
| 18-20 | 28 |

Over 95 per cent of all American youngsters of typical elementary-school age, the over-six-and-under-14 group, are in school. This is a notable achievement for our educational system, but the job is not yet complete. In 1950 there are still 364,000 boys and girls of elementary-school age who are not in any school. In spite of compulsory school-attendance laws in every state, with a minimum-leaving-school-age of 16 or above, an estimated 120,000 American youth annually are still functional illiterates when they reach their 18th birthday. Of this number about 75,000 each year are declared "educational rejectees" by Selective Service. During a manpower squeeze the

¹ An address presented before Group 20 of the sixth annual National Conference on Higher Education, Chicago, Illinois, April 2, 1951. Chairman of the group was J. P. Abbott, Agricultural and Mechanical College of Texas; consultant was Leland L. Medsker, Contra Costa Junior College District; and recorder was William H. Conley, Loyola University, Chicago, Illinois.

number of "educational rejectees" affects college enrollment. When there is a fixed number of uniforms to be filled from a common manpower pool, the greater the number of "rejectees," the fewer the number of men remaining as potential college students. Is the functional illiterate, age 18 or over, a concern of "higher education"?

The holding power of the high school also has improved significantly over a period of years. The wave of expanding enrollment will begin to reach the high schools this September. It is anticipated that during the 1950's the pressure will come both from greatly increased numbers of eighth-grade graduates and from a growing percentage of eighth-grade graduates continuing through the 12th grade and beyond. At present 84 per cent of youth in the 14-17 age bracket are in school. By 1960 the number may reach 95 per cent. In June, 1951, about one-half of the appropriate age group will complete the 12th grade. By 1960 the annual number of high-school graduates may approximate three-quarters of the total age group concerned. It seems inevitable that the more students we have completing the 12th grade, the more students we shall have seeking some educational experience beyond the 12th grade. Should our system of "higher education" be expanded to provide the varied types of educational experiences already being sought by the many? Should it, moreover, have any concern for the 1,358,000 boys and girls, age 14-17, who were not in any school in 1950? Where do the high-school "drop-outs" fit into the "higher-educational" picture?

The old notion that schooling is only for childhood and youth is disappearing. The growing acceptance of the principle of lifelong learning as a fundamental factor in our way of life helps to explain the upsurge of interest in adult education. Enrollments have multiplied in both formal and informal programs of instruction sponsored by numerous lay organizations, by business and industry, by elementary and secondary schools, by junior and community colleges, by land-grant colleges and universities, and by university evening colleges and extension divisions of both public and private institutions.

Contributing to the expansion of adult-education activities has been a gradual bringing together of college and community interests. The better the college serves the community, the greater the support in the community for the college. For some time the college administrator has been aware of this and has been growing more sensitive to the responsibility of his institution for the general improvement of living in the community of which it is a part. The shift in attitude in many instances has been from "the college in the community" to "the community college."

The institution which has been successful in making this turnabout is likely to be in a strong position. It should be able to look ahead with confidence. As it becomes the heart of the educational, cultural, and social improvement activity of the community, its destiny becomes one with that of the community. Periods of war or of peace, of national defense or of national depression, need not be periods of desperation for the community's college, but periods of opportunity—opportunity to help people to help themselves and to help others achieve a better life out of what they have in the here and now. Perhaps this is too limited an objective, this "Point-IV" program for the homeplace, but it is the bedrock on which to anchor the superstructure of higher education. If the local system of education does not provide a means of stability in the community, where shall stability be found?

Many a college administrator who has not seen fit to accept wholeheartedly for his institution the role of the community's college is torn between two forces: (1) the desire to preserve the so-called academic standards of what has been labeled "higher education" and (2) the desire to preserve his institution. He is just now, in numerous instances, beginning to understand that the two desires are not incompatible. By re-examining the mission of his institution and by restating that mission in the broad and flexible terms demanded by today's social, economic, and cultural conditions, he can fulfill both desires—and do much else of greater importance.

In the face of declining enrollments (still up from pre-Pearl-Harbor days), caused partly by the low birth rate of

the 30's, partly by the disappearance of the veteran as a student on the campus, and partly by the new preparedness effort precipitated by the Korean outbreak, the college administrator is having another look at the whole field of education needed for the years of maturity. He is checking in his community the educational needs of all adults, from camp and campus possibilities for unemployed young adults, to citizenship training for the foreign born, to informal learning and service for the old-timers beyond retirement age. Work and study programs sponsored in co-operation with business, industry, and agriculture; short-term courses; parents' seminars; study circles; community studies and associated service projects; citizens' information exchanges; continuing student-personnel services; and similar extension activities are gaining recognition as acceptable functions of his institution.

The common motif of any pattern now emerging in higher education at the community level is this expanding interest in adult education. When the college administrator looks at activity in the adult-education field, and this is becoming quite as true in the small liberal-arts church-related college as it is in the large tax-supported state university, there is no longer any scorn in the glance. After all, is there any reason why higher education cannot include the whole range of adult-education activities, noncredit as well as credit types, without sacrifice of prestige? Cannot education for the masses be carried on concurrently with education for the chosen few?

If we assume that higher education is to be concerned solely with the development of academic competencies, new efforts in adult education may be largely wasted. If we accept, on the contrary, the belief of certain psychologists that the academic is only one of several kinds of ability or aptitude, all of which can be made to respond to appropriate educational treatment, we are entering the gateway to education unlimited. The implications for research, for experimentation, and for creative application of new discoveries are tremendous.

There are real difficulties, of course, involved in the further extension of

educational opportunity in America, particularly opportunity on a purely voluntary basis to persons 18 years of age and over. In the first place, a good bit of folklore has grown into and around our educational system. How else, for example, can our rather quaint academic calendar be explained? The local hospital is not padlocked at 4:00 p.m. on weekdays and all day during the summer months. Can an educational institution be in operation only six hours per day for a total of 180 days per year and effectively serve the people in a community? There is a mounting conviction that our schools for the adult population must be open round-the-clock the year-round. Why should September to June represent an academic year and four such years a college education? The arrangement certainly ignores both birth statistics and employment needs. Birthdays are spread throughout the year. Many employers, including the armed forces, are questioning the advisability of dumping almost the entire crop of graduates for the year into the labor market in June. As a principle of institutional organization in higher education it should be possible for persons to commence their studies at any one of four or more points during the calendar year, to withdraw whenever necessary, and to return to their studies later without handicap or unnecessary loss of time. It would be interesting to know how many potential enrollments are lost between October and August because the programs desired may be entered only in September.

A second, but not secondary, difficulty in extending educational opportunity is our lack of belief in the necessity of continued education for all persons in a democracy. Too frequently our attitude is "Yes, full educational opportunity for everyone in America—but not for racial group Z or religious sect Y for those no-good, lazy X's, those lower-lowers who live away over yonder, pay little taxes, and don't count for much anyway. Now, if any one of them has plenty of ambition, works hard, and has a family willing to make enough sacrifices, he can get all the education he'll ever need to hold a job. Let's not destroy American initiative by giving such people something for nothing. Let them get what

they can on their own." This overlooks, of course, the fact that many American families do not have anything to sacrifice that would make much difference. It ignores the record of youth from families in the high-income brackets where the removal of the necessity for sacrifices seems not to have destroyed initiative.

Lack of belief in the claims for education takes many forms, ranging from indifference to honest doubt to active hostility. All of the people are not sold on the deal they are getting in higher education. As educators we have not answered effectively the first questions of the people: "What's in it for me? Where do I fit in? How will more education benefit my family?" It is not a better press that education needs so much as it is a better system of demonstrating to the individual youth or adult that continued education can make a vital difference in his day-to-day living. There are important implications here for extensive revision of existing programs of higher education and for the creation of many new and different types of instructional services. Why is it that as a people we find it easy to put complete trust in some parts of the educational program, such as vocational preparation or research studies in science, and yet not in education as a balanced whole? Is the pattern to continue to be millions for the physical and biological sciences and nothing for the humanities, communication, applied arts, and the social studies?

A third major difficulty to overcome in the extension of educational opportunity at the community level is the problem of operational control. Claimants for the right to rulership in the domain of the community's college are almost too numerous to mention. The competition does not always stem from a burning desire to serve the educational interests of the community's citizenry; at times it seems to come from the urge to keep any other institution or agency from attempting the job.

Among the chief competitors are: (1) the local public secondary school under the general supervision of the chief state school officer; (2) the state university operating a number of off-campus-student centers in certain localities of the state as a part of its extension

division, and often utilizing local public-school facilities; (3) the state university operating a number of quasi-independent lower-division units or branches on state-owned campuses geographically separated from the main plant of the university; (4) the land-grant colleges and universities operating through their agricultural-experiment stations and other extension activities; (5) the state system of higher education operating a number of regional-type separate institutions, some of which may be lower divisions only or highly specialized institutes; (6) the state colleges and state teachers colleges; (7) private nonprofit universities and colleges, often church-related with separate evening divisions and off-campus-extension activities; (8) proprietary institutions, often with highly specialized functions; (9) non-educational agencies, such as the YMCA.

Specialists in both vocational education and in adult education have looked upon the development of a broad program of community-college education as an invasion of their private territories. Surely such rivalry could come only from a misinterpretation of the nature of the total educational job to be undertaken in the community. Both have major roles in the enterprise, regardless of the types of institutional outlet that might be established. Neither should expect to assume the complete burden alone.

It should be possible to work out criteria for determining the type of organizational arrangement to encourage the community's college. For example, should operational control emanate from the local community or from some centralized state authority? What institution or agency is in the best position to determine the particular needs of the local residents? the private college in the community? the state university? the state higher-educational authority? the local public secondary school? None of these? What type of faculty is needed? From what sources might it be assembled? Is a resident faculty to be preferred to an itinerant faculty? What arrangement is most likely to provide the local residents with flexible and appropriate programs of studies, activities, and services tailor-made for themselves? Will the local public high school, the local private college, or the state

university best be able to develop effective work-and-study plans in cooperation with local business, agriculture, and industry?

These questions and many similar ones admit of a variety of acceptable answers. Each community is unique. It is unlikely that a blanket prescription will be discovered for all communities even within a single state. Let the people decide the matter of control on the basis of a clear-cut presentation of the issues at stake, the factual evidence in connection with the several aspects of each issue, and the possible alternative solutions. The really important matter is to get the job done.

A fourth major difficulty that must be overcome is the selection, preparation, and continued improvement of the professional personnel needed to staff the community's college. Since the problem has been set forth elsewhere in considerable detail, it is simply listed here as an important topic for our discussions during the present sessions.

A fifth difficulty is that of financial support. Where are we going to get the money to support any pattern of higher education at the community level? How can existing colleges expand their programs of instruction and service when it is increasingly difficult for them to finance present offerings? How can the public school system undertake a community-college project when it desperately needs new elementary-school buildings and better pay for elementary- and high-school teachers? In virtually every state a number of communities have conducted preliminary studies and surveys in the hope of being able ultimately to extend the program of the public

school system. Plans for the development of community-college education have been submitted to the superintendents of schools and the boards of education. If the new projects could be financed without dissipating present support for elementary and secondary schools, there would be slight hesitancy about launching them. The common-sense approach of giving priority to the much-needed improvement and further development of programs and facilities for children in grades 1-12 has been followed. Since it is unlikely, however, that elementary and secondary schools will ever attain the perfection we desire for them, are we justified in delaying indefinitely the expansion of higher-educational opportunities at the community level? Could not a beginning be made now? Why not a "Point-IV" plan for ourselves?

We can support anything in America that we want badly enough. We can afford fancy filling stations and fancy supermarkets. The support for them comes out of the pocketbooks of the same people who pay for our schools. Is it more important to have a plastic-tiled, acoustically-treated, fluorescent-lighted, chromium-plated, and beautifully mirrored palace in which to buy a can of beans than it is to have a full range of continuing educational opportunities for the people in the community? The answer will be apparent in the developments of the next few years. An investment in people is good for business. Americans seldom pass up such opportunities for very long. It is not too early to take a hand in fashioning the patterns of higher education that are emerging at the community level.

Chapter 28. Revising the Curriculum in the Light of Changing World Conditions¹

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A CURRICULUM may be regarded as a course of study that encompasses a body of knowledge which is integrated. If the curriculum is to be effective, it must have organization and content which the student can comprehend. The curriculum must be created for specific purposes and with the aim of giving information to the student. When the student has been exposed to the curriculum, he should have, as a result, changed attitudes, and his ability should be developed to the point where he can make logical decisions. If a curriculum cannot stand a critical analysis, it is defective and the aims of education will not be served by it. As the aims of education change—and specific aims do change—the curriculum must be modified. This does not, however, necessarily mean that the aims should be shifted with every whim of the academic personnel.

Universities and colleges exist for the benefit of the students who seek information that will, it is assumed, enable them to lead useful lives. This information, when integrated in the mind of the student, will enable him to do more things better than if he had not become the possessor of that body of knowledge. The acquisition of a mass of facts, even if related, will do no one any good if they are not integrated for a specific purpose. The reason for learning specific facts should always stand in bold relief before the student. Otherwise the incentive for learning remains uncultivated and soon the desire for learning is lessened to a point where interest declines. It therefore follows that the curriculum must be fitted to the ability of the average student. Student abilities vary, of

course, and academic achievements will be different for each individual.

When students come in contact with a curriculum, the teacher should be able to see progress in the acquisition of knowledge and at the same time recognize changing attitudes. If these are not apparent, the curriculum is inadequate, or the student ability is not properly exercised, or the teacher is not meeting his obligations. It is conceivable, of course, that a combination of any two or all three of these factors may be obstacles in the path of achievement.

The curriculum should not be simply the agency by which the teacher advocates his own ideas unless he is truly a master mind and has fundamental contributions to make. The student mind is too important to be merely a subject of experiments. Moreover, the time involved is valuable and in this chaotic world time is a factor not to be lightly considered. The role of the teacher is not to be minimized, but he must more or less fit into the curriculum as must the student. If the minds of the student and the teacher do not meet, there will be a defective product. It would seem, therefore, that a curriculum should be regarded as an agency by which the student is led or directed into constructive thinking. The teacher in this case must be alert, observing, and imaginative. The result will then be a student fit to live in a community and able to contribute to society.

The need for constant revision of the curriculum is pressed home more emphatically every day. The age in which we live changes so rapidly that we are constantly called to witness one crisis after another. The crisis may be on the economic front in America or on the communist front in China. It may be Berlin episodes or it may be the consideration of extending the North Atlantic Pact to include Turkey, Greece, or Spain. The college student should know why he is suddenly called to the armed forces and why the United States finds

¹ An address presented before Group 21 of the sixth annual National Conference on Higher Education, Chicago, Illinois, April 2, 1951. Chairman of the group was J. D. Messick, East Carolina Teachers College; consultant was Phillips Bradley, Syracuse University; and recorder was Francis H. Horn, The Johns Hopkins University.

itself on the defensive even as the strongest power in the world.

Rapid transportation and communication are two of the greatest factors that have produced fundamental changes in our world order. It is possible to reach almost any spot on the globe within a few hours. An airplane can carry peace and good will or it can transport agencies of destruction. How individual ingenuity can serve mankind with benefits instead of serving to make life a period of misery and death is a subject demanding profound consideration. Capacities for constructive activities can be developed in colleges and universities if administrators and teachers know how to organize, develop, and administer curricula that are fundamentally sound.

Radio and television transmit ideas and pictures to auditors and viewers in fractions of seconds. Given the proper mechanical devices a man or group of men can propagandize millions of people. Once ideas have become fixed through clever thought manipulation and thought control, a mass movement is possible. Ideas are conveyed with such speed and so frequently that logical conclusions are reached with difficulty and then only by those who are able sanely to synthesize information. Such ability is acquired through long hours of study in classrooms where students and teachers have exercised cooperation. Only mature, experienced, and sagacious persons can construct curricula that will meet the needs of the students today.

Conflicting ideologies, such as democracy and totalitarianism, have brought millions of men and women together in armed forces which have for a score of years engaged in war. This armed conflict, with more or less intensity, may continue for several decades. We live today and will live tomorrow in periods of international tensions. This is a new experience for Americans. How well they will face the crisis depends upon stability of national character, consciousness of the delicate balances upon which a degree of peace rests, and the desire to see the democratic way of life prevail.

Since 1943—within less than eight years—eight new states have been admitted to the society of nations. They represent a total area of almost 3,000,000 square miles inhabited by more than

one-half billion people. The types of government which these peoples choose are of deep and vital concern to America. Several old nations have been moved to discard their forms of government and to try new ones. Such action may produce a revolution or cause a civil war, and often both revolution and civil war may result. So long as this continues and involves millions of people the established governments will be fundamentally affected. There is, therefore, little prospect for peace among men. This is our changing world and the rapidity with which it changes is stunning, terrific, and terrible. Whether or not America survives with a fair degree of traditional democracy depends upon intelligence acquired through a process of learning, promoted by wisely developed and sanely administered educational programs.

Realism and idealism must be combined to preserve democracy, to elevate it above the selfishness, graft, and corruption that seem to permeate society, and to convince other peoples that the individual is the basis of good living. To accomplish these aims is the challenge that faces higher education. It is this field of learning which will produce many, and doubtless most, of our leaders who will be responsible for our national existence.

One other phase of living must be mentioned to show further how world conditions change, not only from year to year, but from season to season and from day to day. Just now the philosophies of scarcity and plenty are in conflict. Malnutrition, lack of the absolute necessities for a fair degree of comfortable living, and little hope for the future contribute to unhappiness which, if allowed to reach a critical point, will lead to war. To acquaint the American public of this fact is the work of writers, statesmen, and teachers. The courses of study in the colleges and universities will aid or hinder in this educational program.

America is a land of plenty. Our surplus products from the farms and factories should be equitably distributed but without seriously endangering our own standard of living. Where our surplus products cannot go, our technicians can, and thus ways and means may be employed to aid in local production. In-

telligent personnel from colleges and universities, as well as from businesses, must contribute in providing a distribution of materials and in disseminating knowledge so as to produce an approach to satisfactory living. It is exaggerated optimism to believe that a revised curriculum in higher-education institutions will solve all major ills. It is not futile, however, to seek honorable, logical, and possible aids to make at least parts of the world better places in which to live.

Higher education has certain fundamental principles which are basic to learning. Students participate in curricular programs by which they may learn to think quickly, logically, and constructively. They learn that by established educational procedures information may be added from time to time until a body of knowledge is acquired that will enable them to approach, enter, and explore new fields of learning.

A college graduate is expected to know how to speak and write the English language. He must be able to convey his thoughts to others in explanation and in argument. His knowledge of social sciences and humanities should be sufficiently extensive to enable him to read understandingly current literature and periodicals and to appreciate good entertainment. Outstanding men in the fields of science and business should be known generally and in a few instances specifically. General education will provide all this, but if such a division of higher education is not formally offered, the student still should have been sufficiently informed through four years of study to carry on certain studies on his own initiative.

Beyond the essentials in a curriculum there should be a continuous development of courses that will meet current needs and changes that are constantly arising. This world has never been static, and ours is the most dynamic age yet experienced. Curricular changes should be contemporaneous with the new developments. This does not mean that a course in Korean history should be offered because of police action in Korea or that a new course should be offered in the Iranian language because of riots and the nationalization of oil in Iran. It does mean that sometime in the past few years students in college should have had

opportunities to acquaint themselves with certain geographic areas and certain critical and strategic items of commerce as well as with conflicting theories of government.

The petroleum-engineering student is technically and professionally trained. He should have the opportunity and encouragement to take courses that will at least give him acquaintance with the implications of the production and use of oil in the political, social, and cultural life of the nation in which it is produced—like Iran or Venezuela or even the United States. The formal curriculum for this professionally trained student is expanded as new techniques are developed. Courses may be offered that will equip this technically trained student with information by which he can understand that his work is a small unit of international action. This is possible where cooperation among colleges is characteristic of the campus. An integration of long-range values and short-term objectives is not only desirable; it is imperative if good results are to be expected in this changing world.

The student in the college of business administration is too often, like the engineering student, faced with a narrow curriculum. Experience and surveys are measuring units by which more practical curricula can be established than now exist in many institutions. Recently a two-year study to determine what college professors and businessmen thought most essential in training college students for the business world was completed. There was considerable difference of opinion on subject-matter, but among the subjects considered fundamental by both groups were English composition, literature, and public speaking. Economics was regarded by 86 per cent of the businessmen and 98 per cent of the teachers as being essential. Business executives generally considered subjects dealing with public relations, sales promotions, and budget control as very important.

This two-year survey further revealed that the business teachers emphasized statistics and business law beyond the importance attached to them by the businessmen. Certainly the two groups should get together and construct a cur-

riculum that will provide training to equip the student to enter upon his career with the least possible delay. Job counseling is a contribution to the curriculum. Businessmen know what they want, and if the product of the college curriculum does not fit their needs, they must "work him over." This involves loss of time and money and some misunderstanding among the colleges, the teachers, and the employers.

If America really believes in a capitalistic economy, it must be understood by the participants or it is doomed to serious modification. There is ample evidence of the decline of individual enterprise and capitalistic economy. Somewhere the curriculum for the business student should have in it those social studies which show the close relationship between the political and the economic life of a people. There can conceivably be a course with variable hours of credit and content that will permit the teacher, the businessman, and the student to sit around a table and discuss practical as well as theoretical subjects. Certainly the graduating senior will appreciate it. Of course, one may say that if the student is trained in fundamentals, he will know how to meet the problems in business. It will help but in this world of war, calling for armed forces to fight for the American way of life, to understand conflicting ideologies, to experience price fluctuations and mounting inflation, the student should be trained in many fields.

At least a dozen universities are now concentrating on the problems of labor and management in an effort to determine the sociological, psychological, and economic basis of their relationship. The program at Harvard (1943) is the oldest. Among others are California, Chicago, Cornell, Illinois, Massachusetts Institute of Technology, Michigan, Princeton, and Yale. Such integrated curricula as those in the schools mentioned should be extended. All of this points in the direction of stabilization of social and economic factors in our national life.

While so much emphasis is placed on business and engineering, there are still other phases of technical development. Scientific schools realize the need of integrated programs. Curricula are be-

ing made or revised which will produce a well-developed student. At the Rensselaer Polytechnic Institute all students must take at least 20 per cent of their courses in liberal arts. This includes music, poetry, philosophy, government, literature, and foreign language. Alabama Polytechnic Institute in 1944 redesigned its programs to conform to the requirements of modern engineering procedure. Employers of young engineers are demanding more liberalization and less specialization in engineering education.

At the California Institute of Technology every undergraduate must take at least 25 per cent of his work in the humanities. Two years of English, two years of history, and one year of economics are required of all engineering and science students. Case Institute of Technology in Cleveland organized, in 1949, a Division of Social Humanistic Studies. Sophomores and juniors are required to take an integrated two-year course in the "History of Western Civilization." Freshmen take the "Background of American Democracy" which analyzes American democracy in relation to other forms of government.

It is evident, therefore, that patterns are available for those colleges and universities that have not developed the social and humanistic curricula. Scientists have come to recognize the need for broad fields of learning. It is probable that the liberal-arts colleges have not encouraged explorations by students from other colleges, such as engineering. No apology is needed for being a service school for technical and professional students. It would seem that general education should be emphasized in the integrated programs. Here is probably the best place for its use. It should make no difference whether it is called general education or integrated studies. The results are imperative, not mere accomplishments of getting a program of general education recognized as such.

American society is made complex by our natural resources, ability to produce combined with ingenuity, our high standards of living, and our form of government. The American way of life appeals to other peoples who can never hope to reach the goal we have unintentionally set. A few other nations that approach

our standards have joined in alliances with us to defend what may be called Western democracy. Without doubt our college students should appreciate some of these facts. Curricula should be devised or revised to make it possible, and probably it should be mandatory, for practically every student to know that Western democracy is definitely on the defensive. Some institutions of higher learning have recognized this fact and have taken steps to meet the present emergency. This academic age of specialization is a deterrent to one's learning something in a field other than his own.

Courses in "Current Affairs" should be available to students. Such courses should be taught by the most capable teachers on the faculty. Departmental lines in social studies and in humanities should be easily crossed or even eliminated for the purpose of acquainting students with the critical issues involved in our present international crisis. Here can be an integration of fields of learning. This should be education at its best.

How to revise curricula to meet the needs of students in this age of tension is a point of deep concern. It can be done only through cooperation and compromise. A period of study will reveal more points of mutual understanding than at first appear. Faculty members will have to give and take in creating new courses or revising old ones. A faculty committee can do much when all differences are laid on the table for inspection.

Faculties of various colleges can work together in developing integrated programs. Majors and minors will have to be sacrificed in some instances and plans of study for groups of students will have to be agreed upon. Capable advisers will have to be selected, but it is well to remember that they are few on

a campus. The administration should by all means reduce the teaching and student loads of advisers. The lack of good advising is characteristic of colleges and universities with large enrollments. The budget, of course, is of concern and usually the financial officer wins—and too often he does not know the work of the classroom teacher. Again cooperation is the key word.

The public is coming to know more about higher education and its benefits. The colleges and universities serve the people in many ways. The agricultural and mechanical colleges send personnel into the field and give instructions to farmers, ranchmen, women's clubs, and cooperate with the 4-H clubs, Future Farmers of America, and other youth organizations. Speakers from the campus serve civic clubs, study clubs, church groups, chambers of commerce, and others. This adult education is extending farther and farther from the campus and reaching more people every year.

It has become necessary for the services of the campus to reach as many people as possible. There should be nothing exclusive about higher education and its benefits. The faculties should not constitute a learned body set apart from the communities. Someone pays for their services; they in turn should strive to render aid where it is most needed as long as facilities will permit an extension of study beyond the campus.

Building responsible citizenship both on the campus and in the communities is part of the business of the colleges and universities. Research, of course, cannot be neglected. Our extremely dangerous and complex age demands action that reflects intelligence. The curricula of educational institutions is but one agency by which our citizenship can be improved.

Chapter 29. Adapting Preprofessional Programs to the Conditions of Mobilization¹

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FOR more than a half-century the professional schools of this country have gradually lifted their requirements for admission. Today the better of these schools no longer admit candidates directly from high school. Increasingly they are insisting that applicants for admission have from one to four years of liberal-arts-college work. Nearly all medical schools now require at least three years and some give preference to those candidates who have received the bachelor's degree. Our better law schools also insist upon preprofessional training and, other things being equal, will select those who have the greatest amount of liberal-arts training. The other professional schools are inclined, though at a somewhat slower pace, perhaps, to follow the lead of law and medicine. Preprofessional education is now widely rooted and enlarges its hold with each passing year.

Along with Dean Severinghaus of the College of Physicians and Surgeons of Columbia University, and William E. Cadbury, Jr., professor of chemistry, Haverford College, I am at the present time conducting a nationwide survey of preprofessional education with emphasis on preparation for medicine. We are greatly disturbed by the lopsidedness of the education to which so many of our preprofessional students are exposed. We have found that most colleges still suffer, as they have for more than a century, from departmentalization and overspecialization. Liberal-arts colleges are little more than collections of departments with little organic connection between them. Seeking to understand society, the student is confronted with a

plethora of specialized courses, departmentally organized and oftentimes not related, other than on a departmental basis. Men and society disappear from the student's vision as men, and specialties crowd them out. Exposure to a battery of unrelated specialized courses does not greatly advance the student's general understanding of society as a whole or help him, as Dean Severinghaus says, "to build a philosophy of life, a faith in one's self, in one's fellowmen and in the universe, a faith by which one is prepared to live and work." There is lack of balanced education.

Especially is this true in premedicine and preengineering. These programs are overloaded with science courses and poverty-stricken in relation to the humanities and the social sciences. In some colleges as many as 70 to 80 semester hours of the required 120 have been accumulated in science courses. We are all familiar with the fact that prelaw programs are prone to stress the social sciences at the expense of the sciences.

Professional education, research, and advanced specialized study have their place. No one, however, should be permitted to specialize until he has had a broad foundation in general education—in science, the social sciences, and the humanities. Because of the overstress on skills our colleges have graduated men and women technically trained as accountants, librarians, physicians, lawyers, or social workers with little or no interest in the cultural implications of their profession, much less in those things which would enable them to formulate for themselves a satisfying philosophy of life. The social, political, and aesthetic incapacity of the person without cultural background and trained only in the techniques of his work is likely to be appalling.

It was mere acquisition of factual knowledge acquired in unrelated, specialized courses that Walter Lippmann

¹ An address presented before Group 22 of the sixth annual National Conference on Higher Education, Chicago, Illinois, April 2, 1951. Chairman of the group was Harvey H. Davis, State University of Iowa; consultant on public relations was Marvin G. Osborn, Jr., Mississippi State College; and recorder was Clarence M. Peebles, Northwestern University Dental School.

condemned a few years ago in an address before the American Association for the Advancement of Learning. I join in his indictment: "There is no common faith, no common body of principles, no moral and intellectual discipline. Yet the graduates of these modern schools are expected to form a civilized community. They are expected to govern themselves. They are expected to have a social conscience. They are expected to arrive by discussion at common purposes. When one realizes that they have no common culture, is it astounding that they have no common purpose? That they worship false gods? That only in war do they unite? That in the fierce struggle for existence they are tearing Western society to pieces? They are graduates of an educational system in which, though attendance is compulsory, the choice of the subject-matter of education is left to the imagination of college presidents, trustees, and professors, or even to the whims of the pupils themselves. We have established a system of education in which we insist that while everyone should be educated, yet there is nothing in particular that an educated man must know."

Mr. Lippmann was pleading for citizens who have something more than mere specialized, technical skill. He was pleading for a balanced, rounded education of youth.

I have dwelt at considerable length on this matter of specialization versus general education because of its basic importance for preprofessional students, not only in time of mobilization but at all times. The general-education movement has paved the way for broadening student and faculty perspective, helped serve as a check on overspecialization, tended to put a foundation under vocational and preprofessional training, aroused the academic world to the importance of taking inventory of its educational objectives, and has been extremely beneficial to students in discovering themselves and the career they wish to follow.

There is, however, a debit as well as a credit side to the ledger of the general-education movement. There is evidence that some college authorities have climbed on the band wagon of general education without taking adequate time

to define objectives or to evolve the type of courses best suited to realize these objectives. As a consequence much that is labeled general education is superficial and slipshod. In their haste to keep up with the Joneses some colleges have slavishly borrowed from sister institutions where successful general-education programs have been developed. No one can seriously object to profiting from the experience of others, but it is a mistaken policy for one institution to copycat another. Rather, it would seem the part of wisdom for each institution to define its educational objectives and to devise its own machinery in terms of its resources for the realization of these objectives. If in the process of devising its educational machinery it can profit from what is being done elsewhere, it should not hesitate to do so.

Also, the general-education movement suffers from the inertia of vested interests. College administrative and instructional personnel are not different fundamentally from other groups of people. They, too, become habituated to routine. Products themselves of departmentalism with its emphasis on specialization, adherents to the theory that their own particular courses are essential to the education of youth, and reluctant to embark upon new and untried ventures, they resist change. This in itself is not a fault of the general-education movement but rather a vitiating obstacle which impairs and retards its progress. The vested-interest element in any college faculty is likely to be a headache not only to well-intentioned administrators but to those members of the staff who regard the curriculum not as something unchanging—a kind of "Sacred Cow"—but as a flexible instrument designed to meet student needs.

Let us now turn to the questions arising from any attempt to adapt preprofessional programs to the conditions of mobilization.

As this paper is being written a conference of college representatives is being held in Washington under the auspices of the American Council on Education to consider the question of accelerated courses and programs. On the basis of a survey of 205 colleges and universities made prior to the conference the majority were of the opinion

that a repetition of World-War-II experience was "neither necessary nor desirable under present conditions." On the basis of experience I am strongly of the opinion that acceleration is bad for both students and faculty and harmful to the college. For students who have good reason to accelerate provision can be made by lengthening the normal summer session or through achievement tests to permit highly qualified students to advance more rapidly. It may well be that for abler students the work of the last year of high school and the first year of college can be merged without intellectual loss. In this country we have been too prone to make chronology rather than intellectual capacity the criterion for educational advancement.

Whatever final form the draft machinery may take it is almost certain to affect preprofessional programs. Those students who are not deferred for one reason or another will have their programs interrupted. There has been and still is much debate as to whether such interruption should occur at the completion of their college preprofessional work. The answer, I think, depends upon the length and character of the preprofessional program itself. If as in Columbia College, for example, the preprofessional student, irrespective of whether he is headed for law, medicine, or architecture, or any other profession, devotes the first two years of his college career to general education or its equivalent as does the nonpreprofessional student, then there is good argument, it would seem, that his program could best be interrupted at the end of his sophomore year in college. He would then have the broad foundation which every student should have irrespective of the occupation or profession he enters. Upon completion of his military service and the resumption of his studies he is then ready either to go directly to the professional school or to give his attention to those studies which are more special in character and are prescribed for admission to the professional school.

On the other hand, where general-education courses are not a part of the preprofessional program or where they are not concentrated in the first two years, it would seem that the break

might better come at the point of high-school graduation. The majority of our colleges still operate curriculum-wise upon a departmental or divisional basis but unless there is a distinction between the work of the first two years and that of the last two years, I would favor high-school graduation as the best time for program interruption even in those institutions where highly specialized preprofessional programs prevail.

Irrespective of the point of interruption, pressure will undoubtedly come from more than one source to shorten preprofessional training as a means of saving time. Especially is this true of preprofessional programs in medicine, dentistry, and engineering. This pressure was felt during World War II and the years immediately following that conflict. Unless the United States becomes a party to global war, thereby making it necessary for us to modify drastically many of our present educational arrangements, it would seem highly desirable that we not yield to pressure to curtail in whole or in part the preprofessional programs. Above all, for reasons already stated, we should avoid curtailing general education. In the programs leading to medicine, some time might be saved by omitting certain college courses not required but highly recommended or recommended by medical schools for admission. In almost every institution visited in connection with the survey of preprofessional education alluded to above, students tell us they would like to broaden their formal education, but in face of the competition for admission to medical school, they dare not omit these strongly recommended and recommended courses. We have also found that courses in biology and chemistry given at the college level often tend to be repeated in medical school. Such duplication can and should be eliminated. In other words, here is opportunity to effect both saving of time and effort. Conditions of mobilization should lead us to take inventory of our existing curriculum arrangements with a view of eliminating duplication and course overlapping wherever found.

There are those who suggest that some of the preprofessional requirements now provided for in college can be successfully transferred to the period of high-

school education. As we know, the relationship over the years between the high schools and the colleges might have been better. Instead of realizing that they are co-partners in a single enterprise, high-school and college teachers have tended to gravitate into separate camps and to remain aloof. Clearly there is room for improvement. Spokesmen for the high school and the colleges should meet at frequent intervals for an exchange of points of view and to determine who should do what. The professional schools are unhappy about the lack of ability of their students to express themselves cogently, both orally and in writing. They complain about their sloppy habits of workmanship. They assert that they are often without a sense of values and a philosophy of life. Not all of the responsibility for these shortcomings can be laid at the door of either the high school or the college, but it would ease the task of the college if the high schools would give greater stress to training students how to read, write, and speak; to analyze, synthesize, and evaluate; to distinguish between right and wrong; and to acquire habits of excellence in whatever they think or do.

Within limits, mobilization will undoubtedly influence the professional choices of college students. In normal times these choices are motivated by many factors and circumstances. These range all the way from obedience to family insistence or desire to follow in father's or uncle's footsteps to sound reasons, such as inherent desire and capacity. Should the military or civilian authorities indicate deferment for premedical or preengineering or other preprofessional groups we may expect more students to veer toward these groups. Two dangers may result. First, a student whose heart is really not in medicine or engineering may be permitted to go into one of these groups to his own and society's detriment. Second, what should be a desirable balance in terms of the welfare of the nation may be upset. In any event, under conditions of mobilization, no student should be free to elect any program he desires. On the other hand, it would seem mistaken policy to compel him to prepare for a profession for which he has neither aptitude nor competence. If deferment

of a limited number of college students is adopted as a national policy, such deferments should be on the basis of enrollment in a preprofessional program which promises to meet the needs of a mobilized society.

Even before the present movement in the direction of mobilization many persons were expressing concern that we were training too many persons for certain professions and too few for others. Deans of law schools, for example, urged that the number of students admitted to the study of law be limited lest the country be overstaffed with lawyers. A few years ago one frequently heard the statement in both academic and nonacademic circles that we had an oversupply of engineers. A few colleges have already established quotas for the number of premedical students they will admit. The question may well be asked whether we have not reached a time in our history when, in terms of the welfare of the nation, a careful study should be made of our professional needs. If such a study were undertaken, under whose auspices should it be done? Should it be the task of the United States Office of Education, the American Council on Education, the National Education Association, the Association of American Colleges, or a committee representing the several national professional associations? What criteria should govern the work of the agency designated to make such a study? What steps are necessary to maintain a desirable balance in a world of constant change? Once the number needed for any profession is determined, how will it be apportioned among the several colleges and professional schools? Any discussion of adapting preprofessional programs to the conditions of mobilization involves not only the deferment of students for training for certain professions but the selection of these students. Are such students to be selected by the armed forces or by the colleges, and by what process? It is obvious that if selected by the military authorities many men will be chosen who, for economic or other reasons, would not otherwise have been selected. Persons with only high-school training but who have intellectual capacity would never have entered upon the career to which they might be as-

signed by the armed forces. Moreover, selection by the military takes care of the heavy expense involved in preparing for such careers as medicine and engineering. Selection by the military usually means, too, that upon completion of preparation for a profession the student is obligated to the government. Finally, where the selection is made by the armed forces the student in all likelihood has not had the benefit of as broad an education as those who have had some college training. Colleges and professional schools have had a wealth of experience in selecting men and women for professional training which the armed forces do not have. The colleges are better acquainted not only with techniques of selection but with the candidates themselves. In other words, they probably will think in terms of service not only to the armed forces but to the community in which the candidate will ultimately reside.

Much concern has been expressed in some quarters that we are graduating too few doctors of medicine, dentists, and representatives of the other healing arts. If this be true, there seems to be only one major remedy, namely, enlarged facilities. This means not only the expansion of our existing medical, dental, and nursing schools and clinical hospitals but the building, equipping, and supporting of new facilities. It is unlikely that existing privately supported medical and dental schools can afford

this outlay. Any expansion, therefore, must come from either the federal or state governments, or both.

In certain of the other professions the situation, while perhaps less pressing, is no less imperative. If America is to maintain her technological leadership in a world of conflicting ideologies, we must have a steady flow of trained engineers and other scientists. At the moment shortages of engineers for national-defense industries comprise an unsolved major bottleneck. Here the problem is partly a matter of discovering talent and helping to finance those who are unable to finance themselves, and partly a question of employment at a salary commensurate with that received by those who go into law, business, and medicine. In this connection it would seem the part of wisdom to establish at either private or governmental expense a large number of postgraduate fellowships which should be awarded annually to men and women of outstanding talent in engineering and the sciences. Certain steps in this direction have already been made.

Whether in a state of mobilization or not our ability to carry on as a democratic people in a free society depends in great measure upon how well educated we are, not merely as a people who have acquired factual knowledge, but in the meaning of that knowledge in terms of character and behavior.

Chapter 30. Strengthening the Foundations of Democracy¹

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IF we would strengthen the foundations of democracy, we must recognize that these foundations consist of habits of thought and action in the everyday lives of all of our people. The

Constitution, the Bill of Rights, the organization of our government, our laws and policies—these are superstructure. No matter how well planned and constructed the building may be, it will not resist the rigors of the present international "climate" unless its foundations are strong and secure.

We take it for granted that democracy as a way of life in the United States is firmly entrenched. We stand ready to defend it with our lives, if necessary, but, except in times of acute crisis, we

¹ An address presented before Group 23 of the sixth annual National Conference on Higher Education, Chicago, Illinois, April 2, 1951. Chairman of the group was Luther W. Stalnaker, Drake University; consultant was Paul B. Lawson, University of Kansas; and recorder was Frank McLean, State Teachers College, Jacksonville, Alabama.

have not until recently paid much attention to its operation. Some of us have voted on election day, after we have been aroused from lethargy by a campaign of ballyhoo. Only a very few of us have been even aware of what goes on in our local, state, and national governments between election campaigns.

More significantly, we have accepted almost without awareness the fact that democracy in our culture extends but little beyond our political institutions. Those institutions which are a major part of our experience, the family, the school, the church, business, and industry, have remained essentially authoritarian in character. We have preached democracy as a way of life, but we have lived our daily lives in an authoritarian pattern.

This anomalous situation is beginning to change. Such things as the growth of progressive education, the upsurge of unionism, and the international crises of the last decade have altered some of the old patterns. We have acquired a serious determination to preserve democracy. We have begun to recognize that we can preserve it only if we practice it in our daily lives.

A few months ago I participated here in Chicago in a seminar on the human problems of industrial management. The members of the group were executives from about 15 different companies, many of them nationally known. During the three days of the seminar these executives asked over and over, in one way or another: "How can we bring effective democratic practices into the operation of our organization?" This, in their view, was one of the most important, although baffling, tasks facing management in industry today.

As this upsurge of interest in effective democratic institutions has occurred, we have come face to face with the fact that we do not really know very much about what a working democracy is. We find ourselves lacking in the skill and the understanding necessary to convert authoritarian institutions to democratic ones. As the problems multiply and our frustration mounts, we begin to realize that we have been exceedingly naive in thinking that democracy is a simple, easy way of operating.

Just what is the essence of democracy in such human organizations as industrial plants or colleges? Obviously it is not a matter of everyone deciding everything. We know it is impossible to operate an organization as a perpetual town meeting. Obviously, also, democracy is not the abdication of leadership. Strong and competent leadership is as important in a democratic organization as it is in a dictatorship, despite the fact that leaders in the two situations have altogether different conceptions of their roles. A democracy, moreover, is not necessarily dependent on the existence of a process of the election of leaders. In a business organization there are necessary qualifications for particular managerial tasks; in a college, teachers must have certain qualifications, administrators must have different ones. These organizations could probably not function effectively with elected leaders, but this fact does not necessarily prevent their being democratic.

The essence of democracy does not lie in these particular trappings of government. It lies in other more basic characteristics. Among them are such things as these: (1) an attitude in approaching any problem which gives fundamental recognition to the worth of individuals; (2) methods for curbing the arbitrary exercise of power; (3) a willingness to have the members of the organization participate in the determination of policies which affect them. Above all, it is an essential of democracy that the individual freedoms it offers must be purchased by the acceptance of personal responsibility on the part of the members of the organization. In our complacency we have all but forgotten that freedom is an expensive commodity.

We are probably more aware of these things today than we have been since the Civil War. It is apparent that we are sincerely attempting to implement our belief in the values of democracy by bringing its practice into all institutions. We have, however, much yet to learn. Perhaps there is no better place to see the problems we face than in the realm of education, particularly in our colleges and universities.

The typical institution of higher learning is still a stronghold of authoritarianism. The Board of Trustees exercises

almost final and frequently quite arbitrary authority. Administrative officers practice petty tyranny with a good deal of self-righteousness. This is only part of the picture.

The college student, by and large, is in much the same relation to the faculty and college administration as was the factory worker to industrial management before the passage of the National Labor Relations Act. The welfare of the "state" (i.e., of the educational hierarchy) is supreme; the individual is totally subject to its whims and prejudices. In the classroom, the teacher has most of the powers of a dictator, and it must be admitted that some teachers exercise this power quite arbitrarily. (As an illustration, consider the use made of grades as a basis for entrance to graduate and professional schools in the face of a considerable weight of experimental evidence indicating that their reliability, at least in some subjects, is little above the level of pure chance.)

In many colleges there is some form of student government; in a very few does this government have more than trivial authority; in virtually none does it have any voice whatever in educational policy. Departments of political science teach in words the virtues of democracy to students whose daily experience, even in the classrooms of those same departments, is the antithesis of democracy. One could conclude that we educators are so convinced of the power of words that we believe people learn nothing from experience!

I need not elaborate further. Merely to mention higher education in the same breath with democracy is to propound an antithesis. We can all document the reality from our own experiences. The important point is that we have become aware of the significance of this situation. Our efforts to do something about it bring us face to face with our appalling lack of skill and knowledge.

There are so many baffling problems involved in this process of strengthening the foundations of democracy that I find it difficult to decide which to choose for purposes of illustration. Let me call your attention to a single fundamental, one which has many ramifications: the problem of responsibility.

Our young people have been so well conditioned to a passive relationship with an authoritarian educational system that they resent the responsibilities which democracy imposes upon them. In the classroom, the teacher meets active resistance when he attempts to place upon his students the responsibility for their own learning. They prefer to have him tell them "the answers," decide what they should read, assign written work, and grade them on the basis of his own (perhaps quite arbitrary) judgment. They enjoy griping, and perhaps openly revolting against him if he is "too tough," but within rather wide limits they are quite happy to remain passive in the learning situation.

This problem is made more acute because we educators are not always aware of the differences between democracy and anarchy. Many a convert from authoritarianism swings completely over to what Kurt Lewin called a *laissez-faire* relationship in which there is no leadership at all. The theories of non-directive counseling, incautiously applied to the classroom situation, create resentful students and disillusioned teachers. They do not produce a democracy.

Another unhappy transitional phenomenon occurs when the teacher who has been thoroughly habituated to authoritarian ways perceives democracy as a subtle form of manipulation. He feels pressed to change his ways, but he relishes his power. So he grasps happily at a perverted conception of participation: "Handle things so they think the idea was theirs." This neat little formula of seeking to impose one's ideas on a group behind a pseudo-democratic facade always backfires, in time. When the group finally becomes aware of how it has been outsmarted, the leader finds himself face to face with a real problem situation.

In other aspects of the educational situation this same problem presents equally baffling problems. Consider, for example, the regulation of campus living. Most young people enter college straight from a protected and rather elaborately supervised home environment. They are of an age when they are generally resentful of parental authority, and they want a large measure of freedom. But their

conception of freedom in this area is completely anarchistic. They want to be left alone, in complete independence, and they are often quite unwilling to assume that degree of responsibility which would reassure college deans.

Strict authoritarian discipline in this setting may create the external illusion of a satisfactory situation, but we all know that it is an illusion. It is simply impossible to enforce many of the regulations we put on the books. On the other hand, unrestrained freedom is no answer. Just how can we get our young people to exert the necessary degree of self-discipline, to assume responsibility for their own behavior? Even more difficult is the problem of teaching them how to exert "social pressure" on their fellow students who will not play the game.

The whole question of how to make an effective transition from an authoritarian to a democratic educational system is one for which there are no pat answers. A deep underlying confidence in the potentialities of the average man—even if he is an immature college student—is certainly a prerequisite. Beyond that, patience, common sense, and a willingness to experiment appear to be the best that our present knowledge can suggest.

In a somewhat wider context, one encounters still other unsolved problems relating to responsibility. For example, what are the rights and what are the responsibilities of a dissident minority in a democratic organization? We tend rather easily to get excited about this problem, but I fear we are a long way from a satisfactory answer.

I need no more than mention the problems we face with respect to communism in the United States today in order to remind you of their complexity. Most of us abhor witch hunts; we have learned to be wary of committees on un-American activities—but even the most sincerely democratic liberals have offered us no effective formula which will enable us to preserve the essential individual freedoms of democracy and at the same time to protect ourselves from destruction by individuals or groups who demand those freedoms while refusing to accept the democratic "rules of the game."

This problem exists—although of course in far less-threatening terms—with any strongly motivated dissident minority. Those who would adopt extreme measures to prevent war, to bring about absolute racial equality, or to cure the ills of our economic system, are usually heartily intolerant of majority views, and thus impatient with the inertia of the very democracy which they value. To insure them a large measure of freedom of action is an essential for social progress. To limit the degree of that freedom is equally essential to the health of democracy.

The college administrator is all too familiar with this dilemma. Idealistic and impulsive young people have little patience with his concern for public opinion, and hence for the welfare of the institution. They are more than willing to die gloriously, pulling the organization down around their heads, for the ideals in which they believe so fervently. Small wonder he looks askance at "democracy in education"! It is far safer to take refuge in the role of a guardian of minors, and to reassure himself that they are not yet competent to assume responsibility. Only, of course, they will be expected to assume responsibility in full the day they graduate from his institution, whether they have learned how to do so or not!

Put in its simplest terms, the fact seems to be that there is an inverse relationship between the necessary degree of individual responsibility and the necessary degree of centralized control in any organization. If people were wholly responsible—that is, if they were willing to forego actions which would interfere with the welfare of others—there would be no necessity for external controls. In such an organization there would be no need for a police force, or for laws and courts, or their equivalents.

On the other hand, to the extent that some people are irresponsible these various forms of discipline and centralized social control become essential. In the field of labor relations, where I worked for many years, it is interesting to trace the history of national legislation with respect to things like child labor, minimum wages, social security, and collective bargaining, and to see how these laws eventuated from the failure

of individual industrial managements to assume responsibility within their own organizations. It seems harsh to say it bluntly, but the governmental control which industrialists bemoan so consistently, and the high taxation necessary to finance the administration of this control, are things which they have brought on themselves through the failure of some of their members to assume responsibility.

Essentially this same problem faces us in institutions of higher learning. Authoritarian methods in the classroom can be abandoned only to the extent that students can be led to accept responsibility for their own learning. Civil liberties for students and their freedom to participate actively in the area of social and political action require a degree of responsible behavior which is not natural for young and idealistic reformers and political liberals. The elaborate regulations of campus living with respect to such things as the use of alcohol, relations between the sexes, off-campus privileges, dormitory hours, etc., are made necessary because of the lack of a sufficient degree of individual responsibility. Unless students can learn that the price of freedom is responsibility, we cannot have democracy in our educational institutions. This is the dilemma and the challenge we face as educators.

I think we will admit that we do not yet know how to build this attitudinal foundation of effective democracy. A few things seem apparent, however. First, the transition from authoritarian

to democratic leadership cannot be abrupt. We must create opportunities for students to take responsibility and reward its acceptance with increased freedom. Second, we must recognize the vast difference between democracy and anarchy. Third, we must relinquish our habitual tendency to perceive education in terms of words alone and bring realistic experience into the teacher-student relationship. Finally, we must abandon our complacent belief that we know how to operate educational institutions democratically and prepare to learn with our students.

If time permitted, I believe I could outline a half-dozen other problems which we face in seeking to strengthen the foundations of democracy through education—problems which are at least as complex as the one I have used as an illustration. One might be inclined to pessimism in the face of such difficulties, but actually I am optimistic. Our people, and especially some of the leaders in our economic and educational organizations, are awakening to the necessity of extending the practice of democracy from the political field to other areas of living. As I have worked with people—industrial employees and students alike—I have acquired an abiding conviction that we have not yet tapped the real potentialities of human nature. People are capable of learning how to govern themselves; the essential point is that there is much to learn. Who, better than the educator, can aid that learning?

Chapter 31. College-Level Training for Emergency Needs¹

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I SHALL start the discussion of this subject by contrasting conditions of today with those of ten years ago when we were beginning to swing into the

on Higher Education, Chicago, Illinois, April 2, 1951, by Mr. Orton and Mr. Hammond. Chairman of the group was C. W. Beese, Purdue University; consultants were George Glasheen, Atomic Energy Commission, and Mable Walter, American National Red Cross; and recorder was Clifford G. Erickson, Wright Junior College.

¹ Two addresses were presented before Group 24-25 of the sixth annual National Conference

stride of what quickly became a highly successful effort to supply trained manpower for World War II, an effort that contributed in an important degree to our success in that war.

Conditions now differ greatly from those of 1941. Basically, this difference is in the attitude and psychology of a large proportion of our people and government—especially government. This, in effect, delays steps toward manpower preparedness. There is also a very important difference in the manpower pool that exists today, due to these factors:

First, the slump in the birth rate of the 1930's. Whereas about 1,400,000 young men would normally be expected to reach the age of 19 each year with a normal age distribution, in 1951 fewer than 1,100,000 will reach that age. At the same time there are many more persons of nonemployable age now than there were ten years ago, namely, those under ten and over 65 years of age.

Second, the much smaller number of unemployed than there were in the late 1930's. In 1939 there were over 8,000,000 unemployed, constituting a very large available manpower pool. In November, 1950, this figure was 1,800,000, and I believe the number has not greatly changed since that date. This number approaches the zero mark of the genuinely efficient employables.

Third, fewer young children in 1940 to be taken care of in the home than in normal times and, presumably, more unmarried young women. A great many young women went into gainful occupations, especially in industry, during World War II, and a good many of them took special training programs in colleges preparatory to war work. Now this source of recruitment, while not shut off entirely, is much smaller than in the last war.

Fourth, a serious deficiency in some types of industrial manpower. In 1940 the reverse was the case. This is especially true in engineering. The great bulge in the curve of technical graduates that began in 1946-47 and continued to 1950-51 fooled a great many people into believing that a surplus of engineers was in sight that would continue for some time. A good deal of publicity was given to this belief, including a very damaging

report by the Bureau of Labor Statistics. The fact was overlooked that students entering engineering and related technical pursuits had been falling off rapidly since 1946. In that year there were 93,000 engineering freshmen; in 1947 there were 64,000; in 1948 there were 53,000; in 1949, 42,000; and in 1950 the number had dropped to 34,000. The bulge in the curve graduates from 1948 to 1951 was filling up the existing deficit of young engineers, with no surplus to spare. Between 1940 and 1950 a considerable number of employers came into the market for engineers for the first time. This was especially true of smaller industries. Today the average annual demand for engineers is probably about 30,000 as contrasted with a maximum of 13,000 per year before the war. In 1949, 42,000 were graduated and in 1950 about 58,000 (B.S. 52,732; M.S. 4,904; Ph.D. 494), all of whom have been absorbed by industry and government. In addition to this factor, the defense effort and the resulting speed-up of industry and, I fear, some stock-piling of young engineers by industries looking ahead to draft demands have not only absorbed the large number of postwar graduates but also have caused a serious shortage before the critical demand for engineers has fairly begun. This affects the manpower situation all along the line. When the present critical shortage fully develops, and if the armed services take engineering students and graduates for nonengineering military duty, it is not hard to see that a national crisis in technical occupations will result. I cite engineering here because I am more familiar with it than with other fields, but the same sort of situation exists elsewhere to a greater or lesser degree. In a word, there impends a most critical situation in the occupations requiring highly trained manpower. A critical situation is in prospect in reference to all sorts of technical manpower, at both the college and noncollege levels. Those who are concerned with production of manpower are acutely aware of this fact.

Fifth, the increased need for trained manpower since 1940. The present conflict is one of ideas and ways of life, of concepts of government, of national ideals and morals, as much as it is of

warfare, or perhaps even more so. The present conflict is in large measure a test of economic and social stability. This country is obviously beginning to wage a "warfare" of ideas. All of this means that there is not only need for men in the fighting forces but also in the associated branches of government, for trained scientists and engineers to produce armaments and to develop new ones, and for other civilians to support social and economic types of endeavors. We are gradually and inexorably girding this country for defense all along these lines, and as we do so the need for trained young people becomes not only greater in number but also broader in variety. As one sees the evidences of the gradual marshaling of our resources, he cannot escape a feeling of profound sorrow that such a national effort cannot be directed to the accomplishment of peaceful aims throughout the world! In spite of this diversion of interests, we shall not lose entirely by what we are doing; some benefits are bound to accrue, as was the case in past wars. The development of a wide variety of trained persons, if we can establish the needed training programs and if those trained can be directed toward appropriate pursuits, is bound to have its benefits both in the immediate future and later.

One more element must be added to this picture. So far there has been no mention of recruiting a military force of 10,000,000 as was done in the last war. There is in prospect, however, the channeling of all physically qualified young men for a period of two years or more into the military establishment as a permanent national policy. I think it will be agreed that this country would not approve such legislation except in the face of an emergency. It will greatly worsen the manpower situation in the immediate future as it relates to all civilian and governmental activities. A gap of two years or more in the flow of young men into training for essential occupations can have only one effect: a most serious deficit in trained manpower at a time when it is most critically needed.

What, if anything, can be learned from the lessons of the last war?

First, the start on defense-training problems was made more promptly and

vigorously in the last emergency than it has been this time. The Emergency Defense-Training Program of the United States Office of Education was established on October 9, 1940, some 14 months before Pearl Harbor. At Penn State our first contingent of special military officers reported for a special technical-training program in December, 1940. Within a short time thereafter two groups of intelligent young women, all college girls, started a special ten-months course of training as technical aids for the aircraft industry. By the time we declared war, special-training programs were in full swing throughout the country and a supply of auxiliary technical personnel was flowing into industry and government in considerable numbers. Accelerated curricula had been established in most institutions. The country geared itself to defense efforts promptly and, after war was declared, very effectively. The EDT program itself was enlarged from engineering only to include science and management and became the E.S.M.W.T. program. These terms were rather broadly interpreted though the social sciences were not included. During the five years of its existence there were 1,795,716 enrollments in this program; 1,408,578 in engineering, physics, and chemistry, and 387,238 in production supervision. This program was a significant contribution to the war effort and constitutes a pattern that might well be followed now. It was supported entirely by the Federal Government, which reimbursed the institutions for actual expenses and paid the overhead expenses of the central Office of Education administration. Many of the national advisory services of educators were rendered gratuitously. The total cost was \$59,967,065, an average of \$33.40 per trainee. The average duration per course was about 100 contact hours and the average cost about 33 cents per trainee-hour, a very modest level of cost, reflecting efficient management.

To date we have not gone beyond the stage of discussing the establishment of a similar program. It has not been officially authorized and no appropriation has been made with which to start it. Only general plans have been considered.

Second, there was the ASTP of unregretted memory. Poorly conceived at

best, it was terminated abruptly by sweeping all its members into combat service after a clear commitment had been made to prepare the trainees for technical service. There was also a tremendous program of training personnel for artisan-type jobs in industry. An important part of this program was conducted by vocational schools. TWI (Training Within Industry) was also conducted under vocational auspices, and many hundreds of thousands of inexperienced workers were trained for technical occupations.

Omitting ASTP, it is a fair summary to say that the special-training programs of World War II, which produced many thousands of young men and women for war technical service, were very well done. There was good leadership in government to begin with and unity of purpose throughout the country to back it up.

Where did the trainees for those programs come from? At first a good many came from the pool of unemployed that existed at the beginning of the war. A great many were women who left housework and other occupations to don overalls or to work in drafting rooms or in laboratories as technical aids. Some of these young women entered technical occupations at college-grade level. In the aggregate a great many men and women transferred from less-essential peacetime occupations to war industry jobs. Of all trainees probably the greatest number were upgraded from less technical positions or from lower degrees of responsibility to those of a higher order of importance, and that is certain to be the greatest source of manpower in the present emergency. In total, in the last war there was a widespread realignment of the working force of the country at all levels as well as a great influx of new personnel into industry. To recreate such a situation now presents great difficulties. These are due not only to a radically different manpower situation but more importantly to a difference in the psychological situation throughout the country.

One change on the credit side has taken place in the last ten years: an important growth in technical institutes and in terminal technical courses in community junior colleges. Several uni-

versities and colleges have established technical-institute divisions, and those previously in existence have improved in quality. Two national-accrediting agencies have had important influence in causing a growth in technical-institute work and in insuring sound quality.

What the present situation is has already been touched upon. While it is pretty well understood, I shall briefly summarize it here:

1. At this moment the government is still debating the draft situation. No one knows how many students now in college preparing themselves for essential emergency occupations will be permitted to continue or what supply of incoming students will be provided.

2. There is no general emergency-training program as yet, either at the college or the vocational level, although there is a policy as to the federal agency that will have it in charge, namely, the United States Office of Education.

3. There is no TWI or emergency apprenticeship-training program.

4. Colleges in considerable numbers are announcing "accelerated" programs but many of these on inspection appear to be merely enlarged summer-session offerings. Some important institutions have renounced acceleration entirely.

5. The demand for men goes up steadily and rapidly. Industrial and research agencies including federal laboratories are bidding against each other and some are pirating personnel. Full-page advertisements for draftsmen and designers appear in the papers. Qualified college-faculty scientists and engineers are under tremendous pressure to leave their jobs and some have done so. I fear that some permanent injury will be done to college faculties in this way. It will be pretty difficult to get a man to return to a \$6,000 job when he has been earning twice that amount. In a word, there is a muddled situation which as yet shows little evidence of improving.

What can and ought to be done about this situation? Some things are clear, though to take the necessary steps will not be easy.

1. The college population should be increased as much and as rapidly as possible. Some specific proposals are being made to that end, such as those advocated by the Engineering Manpower Commission.

Women students should be encouraged to prepare themselves for technical and scientific occupations as well as for those in branches of government requiring other types of specialists.

There should especially be increased enrollments in terminal courses such as those of the

junior colleges and technical institutes in order to turn out as rapidly as possible greatly increased numbers of aids for services auxiliary to professional personnel.

2. Acceleration should be adopted at least until the flow of returning universal-military-trainee veterans is well established. At that time acceleration should be discontinued. In the long run, it is not good educational practice for a number of reasons. It is needed now, however, to produce as rapidly as possible the manpower necessary in the emergency.

3. A new CDT (College-Defense-Training) program along the lines of the EDT but broader in scope should be inaugurated without further delay. Such a program should offer work for all types of services essential in the emergency; the physical sciences, engineering, psychology, communication, public health, economics, and area and language studies are typical. Courses offered in such a program should have specific emergency occupational objectives but should be sufficiently basic in nature to produce young men and women of capacity for occupational growth.

4. Programs of training industrial supervisors should be greatly expanded, and federal aid should be extended for that purpose. As machine tools and industrial processes have become more and more complex and as production has come more and more to depend on expert control, the need for trained supervisors has increased. The need for well-trained supervisors is now one of the most acute in our entire industrial organization. The chief source of such supervisors is in industry itself, where men should be upgraded from within. The method for upgrading these men is, in turn, the training of training leaders. This is an appropriate job of college-extension services which have done some of it, and of vocational schools which should do more. These programs should be rapidly enlarged.

5. Reduce the wastage of students by aiding them more effectively to choose curricula in accord with their qualifications by better counseling of the right sort.

6. Set up a plan for a rational division of manpower among the several fields of need—military, professional, and industrial—and then see that each of these agencies is protected in securing its needs. Maintain the pipe lines of supply to each of them. This is something that never has been attempted in this country, though there have been approaches to it in others. It is high time that the old arbitrary military priority of need over all others be abandoned.

7. Do whatever may be feasible to aid young people who could not otherwise afford to pursue their education beyond their local public schools to proceed as far as their qualifications justify and need for them exists. This should

not take the form of federal subsidies, but it would be highly appropriate to make interest-bearing loans available.

A number of questions have been submitted to me as possible means of guiding the discussion of broad problems. I shall state the questions and give my own views on them in the hope that other questions will be raised and that the ones here presented will also be discussed further.

1. *At what time and under what conditions is the demand likely to arise for the colleges to provide training programs to aid in war production?* While the need for additional personnel is already on us, the demand for special-training courses has not yet become widely vocal. If special-training programs were authorized, however, I believe that such demand would be expressed at once. The whole question, therefore, rests on how soon approval and financial support can be secured for this purpose as it was in World War II.

2. *What were the strengths and weaknesses in the E.S.M.W.T. program of World War II.* In my opinion, this program was conducted very satisfactorily and with excellent results. For present purposes, however, it would be too narrow in scope and should be broadened as indicated previously.

3. *What kind of federal legislation is needed as a basis for effective provision of programs of this kind by the colleges?* So far as I am aware, no additional legislation is required, but funds must be provided.

4. *What preliminary steps should an institution take in order to be prepared to meet the needs that may arise for courses of this type?* In my opinion, special provisions are, in general, not needed since staff and facilities will probably be available after July 1, 1951, and can be expanded as needed.

5. *How should such courses be financed?* As in the case of E.S.M.W.T. of World War II, defense-training programs should be financed chiefly by the Federal Government, which should pay the direct costs and overhead of the institutions, though industries desiring to inaugurate special types of programs for their individual needs should be

authorized to defray training costs as a charge against defense contracts. Proper safeguards should be thrown around such cases. No profit should be allowed on defense-training courses. Considerable care should be exercised in approving the participating institutions. Only well-qualified institutions should participate. Colleges, junior colleges, technical institutes, vocational schools, and training divisions of industries are typical.

6. *How should college-grade war-production educational programs be administered at the federal level? What should be the role of the Labor Department? What should be the role of the manpower section of the Office of Defense Mobilization?* This question has already been answered. Control and administration of emergency-training programs of

vocational and college grade have been assigned to the Office of Education and should be administered there. To the Labor Department has been assigned the determination of training needs of industry. The colleges and universities, as well as the industries themselves, should cooperate in determining such needs. At the college level they are better qualified to do so than in the existing organization of the Employment Service which is the chief agency of the Labor Department.

7. *How should a program of war-production training be coordinated within a state?* By a system of regional advisers as in the case of World War II. At the vocational level, there should be coordination with the state vocational system. At the college level, control should be within the Office of Education.

Chapter 32. Civil Defense—Education's New Obligation ¹

DWAYNE ORTON

Federal Civil Defense Administration

AMERICA is vulnerable to attack as never before in her history. Our powerful and beautiful cities are primary targets. America can be bombed.

General Hoyt S. Vandenberg, Chief of Staff, United States Air Force, has said: "The American people must realize it is impossible to amass or invent an absolute, impregnable defense against bombing attacks by a strong, determined enemy. . . . should war come, we can be expected to destroy no more than 30 per cent of the planes making an attack in strength on the United States before their bombing missions can be completed."

Here is a new dimension of American life—a measure of our fortitude, our self-reliance, and our devotion to our

country and its people. For nearly a century we have hidden behind the bastions of British sea power. Our insular position and our insular psychology were secure in a world where our culturally closest neighbor kept the peace by controlling the gateways of sea transportation. From Scapa Flow through the Straits of Dover, past Gibraltar, Malta, Suez, Aden, Singapore, Freemantle, around the Horn and Capetown, British naval power controlled the seas. Americans could have said: "As long as God and the British Navy have the situation well in hand, we can retire behind our ocean walls and live unto ourselves alone."

We learned in World War II, however, that a new view of the world was necessary. Aviation had changed world communications and man's way of life. Now we realize that the top of the world is the new highway of the air. General "Billy" Mitchell knew this when, in 1929, he said: "Alaska is the key to the Pacific." Anne Lindberg knew it when she titled her book *North to the Orient*. The Russians knew it when in

¹ Two addresses were presented before Group 24-25 of the sixth annual National Conference on Higher Education, Chicago, Illinois, April 2, 1951, by Mr. Hammond and Mr. Orton. Chairman of the group was C. W. Beese, Purdue University; consultants were George Glasheen, Atomic Energy Commission, and Mable Walter, American National Red Cross; and recorder was Clifford G. Erickson, Wright Junior College.

the 30's they sent their fliers over the Arctic Ocean from Moscow to Seattle.

Civil defense—our new dimension of American life—is based on the simple fact that America can be bombed. Americans may be shocked at learning of their vulnerability; some never may realize it until fire, storm, and the atomic devastation strike us. Awakened and realistic Americans will realize with General Vandenberg, however, that "the grim contingencies must be faced squarely along with the urgent necessity for supporting a civil-defense program. . . ."

Civil defense is everybody's business. No one can escape the possibility of being involved in atomic, biological, or chemical attack. Now that the home front has become the war front everyone and everything could be expendable. Civil defense is an imperative necessity in a tense and divided world. When he signed the Federal Civil Defense Act on January 12, 1951, President Truman explained that the law was "designed to protect life and property in the United States in case of enemy assault. It affords the basic framework for preparations to minimize the effects of an attack on our civilian population and to deal with the immediate emergency conditions which such an attack would create."

Federal Civil Defense Administrator Millard Caldwell, former Congressman and Governor of Florida, points out that "a sound national civil-defense program in being is as necessary to our national security as armies, planes, and tanks." He notes further that "the military services have the responsibility for warding off attacks on our homeland and striking back at the enemy; civil defense must save lives, reduce the impact of an enemy attack, and keep essential production going in order to supply the armed services."

Let it not be thought that our urge to develop civil defense is in any way a defeatist retreat from peace-making through the United Nations and all its great auxiliary agencies, through education, through the church, or through world trade. Rather than a retreat it is an offensive movement for peace. A strong, self-reliant people, trained and disciplined in personal protection and

mutual aid to their fellows, is a deterrent to the aggressor.

Atomic attack will destroy property, but its greatest value will be in breaking the will of the people. Demoralized people are defeated people.

We face two seemingly opposite but not inconsistent issues in our international thinking. One drives us with hopeful faith to develop the will and the way of peace. The other recognizes the stark realities of division, aggression, and conquest in the world we would build into a neighborhood and prepares us to secure and save our way of life in the event of attack.

Civil defense is everybody's business and what is everybody's business is also the business of educational institutions. What, then, is the substance of this new dimension of American life and what is education's obligation to it?

Civil defense is compounded of two spiritual qualities which issue in practical tactics; they are *self-reliance* and *mutual aid*.

Self-reliance was pointed up in the title of the Larchmont, New York, Community Forum on Civil Defense—"If All Hell Breaks Loose, Are You Ready?" Phillip Wylie, writing in the *Atlantic Monthly*, reminds us that the United States is the only one of the great powers that has not been tested in civilian defense. He calls for fortitude as the cardinal aspect of defense. "Whether atomic attacks of our cities result in rout and utter disaster or in a brave and orderly dealing with the facts will depend first and last upon the morale of the people in the cities—all the cities. For as things stand, and as they probably will stand in the long years to come, if we become involved in war, it will be atomic war, and to win an atomic war we shall depend upon the manning and the maintenance of our cities along with the industrial plants they contain."

Self-reliance is the ingredient of strength in our social fabric. When an atomic blast strikes, individuals must look to their own confidence and personal skill to care for themselves. If they are trained, they will have self-reliance. It is the aim of civil defense to stimulate, assist, guide, and provide training for all the people in self-

reliance. Here is a primary obligation of educational institutions. A positive answer to the question, "Can we take it?", will depend upon the ability and willingness of American training and educational forces to develop the will and skill of self-reliance in all the people.

Our second basic principle is *mutual aid*. In civil defense as in all life, no one liveth or dieth unto himself alone. In the hour of attack and danger his own fortitude will sustain him, but it will also give him courage to go to the assistance of the others by carrying out his organizational duties. Mutual aid in practice responsibly relates each person to all others in the family, the neighborhood, the city, the state, and the nation. Beyond the personal level, however, this principle is the heart of civil-defense tactics.

No city under atomic attack could possibly care for itself. With its vital communications and utilities hit it would be crippled. The internal-defense forces would be taxed and hampered. Supplies and equipment would be hurt, workers not injured would be required to carry on in the essential productive work of the city.

The relief of the city would depend largely on technically trained and equipped mobile support columns of civil-defense forces from other cities and surrounding support areas. Rescue squads, decontamination squads, fire fighters, radiological experts, doctors, nurses' aides, making up mobile support teams, would move rapidly to the aid of stricken areas. Thus, the principle of mutual aid gets organized expression. The assurance and strength which the knowledge of ready mutual support will bring to all of us is incalculably valuable. Men will stay on the job knowing their families are as well cared for as if they were there. Families will not panic; mass evacuation—possibly worse than the attack itself—will be deterred by the realization that support is on the way.

Furthermore, mutual aid and self-reliance are in harmony with the great focal ideas of our time. Just as competition and expansion were dominating focal ideas of the 19th Century participation and coordination seem to be focal ideas of our time when the world has

grown smaller by virtue of man's expanded range of contact and communication—a world where he may clash elbows in conflict or link arms in understanding.

Even this panoramic review of principles should suggest to educators the primary place of education and training in civil defense. Civil defense is a new dimension of our national life and a new problem for educators at all levels and in all fields of education.

We are confident that the forces of higher education will advance the cause of civil defense because the American college has always been in the forefront of the social and economic offensives that have made America great. Despite the fact that the college was borrowed from the Old World, it began early to break its ancestral ties and to adapt itself to the New World. King's College (now Columbia) was advertised in 1754 as presenting a more practical aim of training its students to be "useful to the public weal of their generations."

The effects of diverse nationalities in the population of the New World, the new requirements of the frontier, the inaccessibility of Europe and the weaning of later generations away from the mother countries profoundly conditioned and liberalized the course of our educational development.

As science began to affect man's way of life the college took the lead in its advance. Pure research in industry was practically unknown 40 years ago, but Harvard established a professorship in mathematics in 1728 and by 1769 "philosophical apparatus" included skeletons, microscopes, machines for mechanics, hydrostatics, pneumatics, and optics. The great dependence of our atomic-energy developments upon the personnel and facilities of our universities reminds us that we have come a long way from the secret cellar in which the Royal Society held its early meetings.

The American college has come of age as a part of the deepening strength of the New World's maturity. The ebb and flow of America's economic life has alternately enriched and distressed the college. Its diplomas and fraternities have become the goals of America's parents for America's children. It is woven into the warp and woof of the

fabric that is America. Its perennial adaptability is expressed in the way it impregnates the temporal affairs of a dynamic people with the abiding values of our spiritual heritage.

Now we are faced with a great new task—that of building into educational thought and process the substance of a new dimension of our common life. Your program planners have asked me to answer some specific questions. This I shall try to do. The vital answers, however, will be those which you develop in this workshop and on your various campuses. First, let me outline the educational and training places of the Federal Civil Defense Administration.

Civil-defense-training responsibility is set up in harmony with American educational traditions and is outlined in the "blue book," *United States Civil Defense*. Direct training responsibility is fixed in the several states. The program covers the training of civil-defense workers at the federal, state, and local government levels; also the training of individuals under the self-help principle of civil defense.

"The Federal Government is responsible for formulating a nationwide civil-defense-training program and for developing training policies and plans as guides to state and local authorities. The Federal Civil Defense Agency provides staff guidance and assistance to these authorities."²

To articulate these policies the Office of Training and Education of the Federal Civil Defense Administration will operate four schools and provide the educational services to carry out staff guidance and assistance. At the head of the system will be the Staff College for key administrative personnel at regional and state levels. Three training centers will be established "for selected personnel who will operate state and municipal training programs."³

"The state governments should organize and operate appropriate state training programs and should assist the local authorities in establishing and supervising their training programs.

"The local governments have the responsibility for training most of the civil-defense personnel and the general public.

"All persons have an individual responsibility for training themselves and their families in basic self-help. . . ."⁴

The Office of Training and Education plans further to provide manuals, visual and auditory teaching aids, evaluation services, consultative services in special training, assistance in recruiting and utilizing volunteer workers, guidance and review of field exercises, and visiting institute teams.

Here is an unparalleled opportunity for colleges and universities to pioneer in this new dimension of American life. Each institution can be a bulwark of strength to its state and local community.

Civil defense provides American education with an opportunity to express itself as a truly community institution. Its courses in techniques will not appeal to "ivory-tower minds" among educators, but they will challenge those who see and desire to participate in the American community-college movement. To lead, implement, and develop self-reliance and mutual aid in the American people, particularly in the hour of their great need, is a purpose worthy of higher education—long traditions of social usefulness. From the "First Fruits of New England" to the declarations of this Conference American education has served all the people. Building and teaching the ideas and skills of this new dimension of life will side-track some of the time-honored fences of academic tradition. Yearly graduations, semester-length courses, Carnegie units of credit, accrediting strait jackets, and other restrictive shackles will not apply. American education, however, has never failed American need, nor will it this time as we face the task of training about 18,000,000 workers and 150,000,000 citizens.

² National Security Resources Board. *United States Civil Defense*. United States Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C., 1950.

³ National Security Resources Board. *Ibid.*

⁴ National Security Resources Board. *Ibid.*

Chapter 33. Some Basic Principles of General Education¹

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THIS is a good time to take a look at some of the strong and weak points in the general-education movement in America.

Academic reform at this juncture is no idle academic issue. Rearmament is vastly increasing both the difficulties of the colleges and the demands made upon them. Universal military training and decreasing college enrollments, governmentally financed research and training programs sponsored by the armed forces, and the raids of government and industry on college personnel, especially in the fields of science, are posing problems for administrators and teachers alike. At the same time, the conflicting ideals and the issues now joined require a breadth and depth of understanding and a social competence for which our students must be prepared.

It is important to recognize that the currents pushing the student toward early specialization are again running strong. The demands arising out of mobilization, directly and indirectly, are reemphasizing a concentration on skills, technical proficiency, on specialized knowledge, and vocational training. Yet the times call for an effective general education as never before.

Responsibility for attaining and maintaining a balance between specialized and "general" training rests squarely with the colleges. By setting up strong and effective general-education programs alongside the professional and departmental courses, and thus by raising the goal of personal and social effectiveness to a place of equal academic importance, we may perform our full and requisite service. By heeding, instead, the demands of the shortsighted and the voca-

tionally and professionally minded, we can commit gross negligence. The danger that in winning the struggle for the dominance of democracy over totalitarianism, we might still lose the very thing for which we fight, is not an illusory one.

The problem is not simply a matter of turning to a well-defined, well-established, and clearly validated program of general education. No such program has been worked out and tested in action; there is yet no course of instruction whose superior value, in terms of the goals of general education, has been proved, no matter what claims are made for one or another of the existing experimental courses. It is primarily a matter of examining and reexamining the basic issues, the methods and contents of instruction, and above all, of constant and continuing evaluation and adjustment of academic and administrative procedure.

THE FUNCTIONS OF A UNIVERSITY

In reemphasizing the role of general education, we restore one of the traditional functions of a university to a place of primary importance. Historically, these functions are threefold: (1) to further scientific and scholarly research and to train researchers, thus contributing to the advance knowledge and understanding; (2) to train for the learned professions, such as law, medicine, and theology; (3) to endow students with an appreciation for and an understanding of the cumulative culture of the past. This third role of the university has been amended to add an understanding of the advances and developments of the present, and to prepare our graduates to deal with pressing scientific, social, and personal problems which are inexorably and relentlessly modern.

It is not our purpose to deal with the first two of these functions. That the product of our assorted hierarchies of specialized courses is too often lopsided, highly proficient in one area, and super-

¹ An address presented before Group 26 of the sixth annual National Conference on Higher Education, Chicago, Illinois, April 2, 1951. Chairman of the group was F. Champion Ward, University of Chicago; consultants were H. H. Hartshorn, Texas State University for Negroes, and Ruth G. Weintraub, Hunter College; and recorder was Maurice F. Freehill, Western Washington College of Education.

ficial or misinformed in many, has been emphasized too many times to merit elaboration.

Some degree of specialization and concentration is necessary for advanced students and in the interest of professional and research competence. The question of the best kind of course for college students, however, dissolves into two separate ones: best for "getting ahead," or for establishing a foothold in a profession, and best for getting more out of life, or for carrying one's proportionate weight of social responsibility. Even these two functions are not mutually exclusive. The student does not have to balance the good against the evil, or to choose between two good things. A sound general education is, or should be, the best type of foundation upon which to build professional competence.

One reason for the relative failure of our universities and colleges in the third area, that of cultural and social competence, is that college faculties have long (at least since Elliot's time and the breaching of the classical curriculum) regarded academic fields as more-or-less independent entities. The great majority have had a professional attitude toward their subjects, and have been principally concerned with the problem of turning out competent physicists, chemists, psychologists, or historians, rather than with the problems or goals of general education. While the prevailing pattern has been an effective one in terms of the circumscribed objectives, the student, and society at large, have been penalized by virtue of the narrow emphasis. Naturally, the result has been to foster a progressively limited area of competence; as the student advances through the hierarchy of courses in a particular field of concentration, he progressively narrows his special interest until he ends as an authority or research specialist in a "separate area of a divided subject of a disconnected field."

The common use of such terms as "principal" and "related courses" illustrates the artificial isolation of our fields, and carries the implication that all other courses are unrelated. Professionally, perhaps, there may be such things as "unrelated courses" although, even vocationally conceived, there has been a growing tendency of late to recognize

the value of a wider emphasis and a correlation of related knowledge and principles from a number of fields. The whole academic habit of mind has been sharply at variance with recent trends in scientific development. Faculty resistance to change, in many instances, has been stubborn and has given way slowly and reluctantly.

PREVAILING PATTERNS

Unfortunately, the prevailing pattern in general education as yet does not represent too drastic a break with the liberal-arts tradition and form. The reason is probably not hard to find. Along with much of the basic subject-matter, it is only natural that members of faculty committees should have a tendency to carry over into the new programs the kind of course organization under which as students they grew up and within which they have functioned as teachers. Academic mores have frowned upon the invasion of another man's craft. Jurisdictional disputes have emphasized the essential Ph.D. union card and respect for picket lines. Tradition, even the forms of academic responsibility, has conspired to discourage crossing these lines and to make all trespassing difficult, if not professionally dangerous. Many committees assigned to the problems of general education either have been bound to the familiar forms or have been restrained by the opinion of professional colleagues. Too often, in a conventional liberal-arts climate, reform comes with glacial slowness.

Logically and practically we should question the wisdom of applying the conventional course structure to a general-education program whose purposes stand in dramatic contrast. Grave doubts arise whether minor adjustments of the familiar pattern will serve well in a new context. Certainly a predisposition for the usual forms would appear to place serious limitations on an experimental program—and every such program, regardless of claims, is still in an experimental stage—where freedom to devise new methods specially adapted to the needs of general education is of paramount importance. The ideal academic pattern is one which is closely geared to the educational objectives of the given program; departmental or-

ganization, as well as administrative procedure should play a subordinate rather than a dominant role, and should follow rather than precede decisions on content, emphasis, and method.

If the life of a student demands a consistency and a unity of thought and action, then his education should be geared to this need. Instead of unity, however, we present the young man or woman with a curriculum which isolates not only his vocational specialized major from his cultural study, but even the latter is given piecemeal. It would appear that the humanities and the social sciences, for example, had little bearing on and nothing to offer one another, and that this knowledge would and should function departmentally in the daily life of the student.

What we call general education amounts to no tidy compendium of simple, unrelated courses in the sciences, social sciences, and humanities. What, then, is general education? No man can venture a pat and final definition. It is far from a static thing, and our ideas must evolve finally through the agony of trial and error, in the job of constructing and teaching and evaluation. We can, however, break down and analyze some of the factors which should be taken into account.

THE NEED FOR A UNIFYING CONCEPT

Securing faculty agreement on a purely abstract level is no simple matter. The difficulties encountered in the realm of educational theory pale into insignificance when compared to what one faces in the task of reducing theory to a course of instruction. It is a very different thing to decide what somebody else ought to do, and to find the way to carry through on a given line. Glittering generalities tend to fade, and vague terms about "preparation for the good life," "citizenship in a free democracy," "ethical principles and aesthetic appreciation," have a way of dissolving into academic mists when one looks about for perches and footholds. These concepts, devoid of the more concrete steps to be taken, with no mention of the particular knowledge involved, the specific attitudes and habits to be built, the course structure or teaching methods, tend to leave one dazed, particularly so

when many of our best academic minds have retreated behind a cloud of "higher-order abstractions." The task of getting these concepts down to earth, of creating the mechanics of operations, of setting up realistic objectives, and of devising a course of instruction which holds a fair promise of success with a particular group of students—these are some of the problems which, in the long run, cannot be evaded.

In contriving a list of goals each faculty formulates the ideals with which to shape its program. Barring pharisaical pretensions, we must honestly examine and try to cure the real discrepancies which exist between our ideals and our practices, not exempting those general-education programs already functioning. This is the ethical imperative of education, whose weakness is that, too often, it is content to function in the arid realm of inoperative, abstract principles.

At the point of transferring these ideals into practice in the process of actual course construction, certain questions come up which spotlight the major issue: How can any such a varied and apparently divergent group of "basic or mandatory objectives" be achieved within any reasonable time allotment? How can superficiality and confusion be avoided in the attempt? A third, much graver and more puzzling, hazard looms at the prospect of a separate and unrelated attack upon such goals as "emotional maturity," "social responsibility," or even "critical, logical, and constructive thinking." Or, differently stated: Is it reasonable to expect even fair success in the attainment of these goals by a course or two aimed successively, separately, and exclusively at each one in turn?

Here is a puzzling and largely ignored problem which we must solve. The major goals of general education cannot be defined or treated in isolation. They must be recognized as collective, rather than individual; as interdependent rather than unrelated. In fact, there is not a single one which does not touch, overlap, and combine with other goals, and which is not capable of reinforcing and balancing the total pattern.

Here is the principle and the conviction which reaches the very heart of our problem: our separate objectives should

be regarded as part and parcel of one inclusive design; as differing aspects of an overarching goal, in which each functions as supplementary and complementary, rather than as competing elements.

CONSOLIDATING THE OBJECTIVES

We must discard, once and for all, the paralyzing illusion that the major goals of liberal general education can be isolated and tackled one by one in separate courses or programs. Here, perhaps, we may approach the true meaning of that useful, but abused and overworked, word: *integration*. Without a reconciliation of objectives, however, and a systematic, concerted, coordinate attack upon them by the entire general-education faculty, it is questionable whether there is any practicable way of achieving an effective degree of integration.

When this simple but vital idea is employed in the attempt to bring our varied purposes into a unified pattern, it is maintained that the common goals of general education *are* related and interdependent, and that they are capable of being reconciled, joined, and fused into a single, inclusive concept. To the extent that such a reconciliation is worked out in practice, it serves to unify and integrate the student's knowledge and understanding, and provides a thoroughness and consistency of instruction lacking in a segmented course of study.

In the attempt to mobilize and harmonize the basic goals the establishment of an "hierarchy of objectives" afforded one practicable approach to the problem. In the key position, it happened that our faculty placed the goal of congruity of thought and action as the focal point for the coordination and orientation of every phase of the program. In this scheme all other objectives are ranged under the coordinating goal as contributing and constituent elements. Any one of several major objectives might well have been chosen: social responsibility, ethical standards, or personal and social adjustment, for example, depending on the college faculty concerned.

This overarching objective has been conceived as follows: The reconciliation of the student's beliefs, attitudes, and actions with an appropriate knowledge, understanding, and appreciation, to form

a consistent fully related system of thought and action; to achieve an integration of thought and attitude in consonance with the demands and ideals of social living; or, to harness the student's knowledge and ideas, his ideals and dynamic trends, so to free him from division, uncertainty, and conflict as to open the way to creative and constructive thought and action; or differently stated, to relate and integrate an essential understanding of the nature of the physical, biological, and social world in which he lives, together with an understanding and respect for basic ethical tenets as they apply individually and in cooperative living, and to give him a related appreciation of our cultural heritage.

Operating under such a concept, the separate courses with their special emphases and special objectives, instead of branching into independent and relatively unrelated efforts, should complement and reinforce each other. Ideally and practically, the divisive atmosphere and dissonant tone of college training may thus give way to a relevant equilibrium and a genuine harmony of effort.

An example may serve to illustrate the process of relating these sub-objectives to the over-all objective. Plainly, the ability to deal logically, critically, and constructively with problems as they arise in living would constitute a basic objective for almost any general-education program. It is clear that this ability is not acquired in a vacuum, but through actual practice in the manipulation of facts, principles, and ideas, and in relation to some purpose or end.

Theoretically, the ability to reason logically and effectively may be acquired in a number of ways. Practically, however, there are a number of prerequisites and aids to the attainment of this goal. Not infrequently, one or more essential steps are slighted or omitted in the student's training. A listing of these factors might include: (1) mastery of related facts and principles and a comprehension of their significance in the given context (the necessary information may, and usually does, come from a number of academic fields); (2) some facility at deductive and inductive logic (This should include not only formal logic and familiarity with mathematical

reasoning, but an induction into the methods of science, and practice inside and outside the laboratory, for example, in the various steps of setting up and examining hypotheses and selecting relevant facts. Practice in applying these principles should not be confined to mathematics and science, but should be extended as well to problems in the social sciences and in the humanities.); (3) attitudes of objectivity and tolerance (These must be acquired, together with a corresponding elimination of such factors as prejudice, error, emotional tone, false "identification," logic-tight compartments and blind spots. Without this objectivity, a facility at logic may become a tool for the plausible support of prejudice, or the "rationalization" of social injustice and persecution; (4) an integration of the personality (As a corollary, the student requires an integration and reconciliation of his knowledge and understanding with his beliefs, actions, and attitudes, particularly so when those attitudes and actions are directed more by "thalamic conditioning" than by "complete cerebration." In short, the student requires an integrated personality. Without first securing such an inner reconciliation and harmony of mind, without an "insight" into his own motives, a person is in no condition to deal objectively and effectively with social and personal problems.); and (5) honesty and sincerity of purpose (The student should have a sense of social responsibility, and adopt certain basic ethical principles. For certain types of problems he also requires a degree of aesthetic understanding and appreciation.)

Whether or not one goes all the way in accepting these or other "prerequisites," it is clear that critical and constructive thinking is not only an essential factor in attaining the goal of "congruity of thought and action," but that the "harmonizing of the personality" is equally desirable as a basis for dealing with real-life problems. The left hand washes the right, and *vice versa*. As the student proceeds step by step, ever adding to his general education and quickening his pace, he must advance at once on a broad front and toward the related

goals which support and are in turn supported by the given objective. Each objective contributes in some measure to the attainment of the collective goal and, directly or indirectly, to the others.

Society puts a claim on each developing individual to reconcile his self-centered drives with the obligations arising through corporate living. There is also an inner compulsion to compose the fragments of knowledge and to harmonize motivating forces which too often compete and impede rather than combine and reinforce for free, uninhibited, and effective action. The individual needs to find some basis for law and order, for uniformity and consistency within the world of experience. Coupled with and supporting this impetus is a basic psychological principle of learning, namely, wider patterns of knowledge and understanding, in contrast to rote learning and fragmentary patterns, must create and be created by a multiplicity of associative hooks which act as an instrument of recall, and promote consistent and relatively permanent educational gains.

A somewhat different way of stating a necessary condition of effective learning is to say that the student's education has to be so planned and presented that it provides an opportunity for a consistent sense of progress in apprehension and appreciation of those wider relationships which transcend mere knowledge and are a supporting condition of wisdom. It is a basic tenet of this program that, however imperfect the pattern, to the extent that new and pervading relationships are brought to light, knowledge acquires an added significance, and education takes on a new dimension.

Each student must achieve his own "integration," his own unification of knowledge and understanding. Academic material must be persuasively presented, backed by every available contributing condition. He must be sold on the educational philosophy; he must experience satisfaction from the fact that the related material is individually meaningful and that it is relevant to his own personal understanding and more effective attack on the problems of individual and social living.

Chapter 34. General Education: Getting the Program Started in a Large University¹

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WHAT I am going to describe for you is a revolution of the past in one institution, The University of Chicago, from the point of view of one person who was at the start an unwilling participant in the general convulsion. From this exposition it is my hope that you may extract certain general lessons. I need not tell a group of educators how difficult it is to institute radical educational reforms. Whether we are different from other professional groups—lawyers, doctors, businessmen—in our conservatism, in our attachment to old ways and methods I do not know. I rather think we are not. Maybe man is by nature conservative. In any case, I recall a tense moment at a certain faculty meeting at the University in the early spring of 1930 when the general features of the new plan for general education were submitted to a silent and not too enthusiastic group. No one spoke. Then up stood President Hutchins and, addressing Dean Boucher, who was presiding, said: "I move that the excellent suggestion of the President of this University, that this new plan be put into effect next autumn, be adopted." Someone from somewhere must have seconded the motion, but the voice was not very audible. A scattering of ayes followed the putting of the motion; there were a few noes, and a new plan of education was set on its way. I recall this incident at the present time to point out that, despite the enthusiasm of Mr. Hutchins, of certain outstanding members of the faculty, and of the Department of Education for a general-education plan, skepticism and opposition seemed far more general than approval. Determined, convincing, and dynamic

leadership carried the plan to a successful conclusion.

Other factors aided, however, in the adoption of the plan. Tradition and that intangible element, the spirit of the institution, helped. The first president of the University of Chicago, William Rainey Harper, had declared (not unlike Thomas Jefferson) that there should be an educational revolution at the University about every ten years. In other words, we should periodically take things apart, examine the segments, throw away what had become of little use, and rebuild according to the right reason of the best men. The University was an experiment at its founding, and the spirit of experiment still pervaded it.

One other factor should be noted. For some years the question of the relationship of the undergraduate college to the graduate school had troubled the minds of faculty members and administrators alike. Some favored cutting off the College, particularly the first two years, from the University and setting it up as a separate, independent institution somewhere in the neighborhood. Some favored its complete extinction. Some favored a plan that might better integrate the college into the general plan of the University. No one was altogether satisfied with the situation as it stood. Not a few for sentimental reasons disliked the cutting off of that part of the institution wherein life was gay and the burden of learning did not crush out enthusiasm. And it must be remembered—and everywhere it has to be remembered—that the college was the institution for which the alumni had the strongest attachments.

On the campus almost everywhere there was dissatisfaction for a credit system that declared a student fully educated with 36 credits and not educated with 35½. While Chicago had partially emerged from the era of confusion of the free elective system, it was still not possible to say with any

¹ An address presented before Group 27 of the sixth annual National Conference on Higher Education, Chicago, Illinois, April 2, 1951. Chairman of the group was Aaron J. Ihde, University of Wisconsin; consultant was W. Hugh Stickler, The Florida State University; and recorder was E. F. Castetter, University of New Mexico.

degree of exactitude what kind of education we had put forth at graduation. It could not be named. As in most other institutions a group system of studies had prevented students from too haphazard a selection—but there were always electives, and as the years went on we went on “enriching the curriculum” with new courses. Some of these courses were indeed rich—but like frozen custard or whipped cream. In a day when we still had athletes with us the number of them interested in the higher criticism of the Bible or the appreciation of art and music gave the altogether false impression that brawn and culture were now and forever more firmly allied. Groupings of prelaw courses, premedical courses, prebusiness courses added to the general confusion and confirmed us in the belief that nowhere in the institution was a sound general education being given to anyone. How sound, in any case, could be the decision of a young freshman that he was eminently fitted to be a successful lawyer, doctor, or businessman?

Beyond the dissatisfaction with the whole credit system, one final factor aided in the adoption of a new plan: During the administration of President Mason, predecessor to Mr. Hutchins, a committee had been authorized to study the undergraduate situation. This committee worked quietly and with commendable earnestness at the problem. On the basis of the preliminary report the University Senate recommended in 1928 the creation of an administrative board of the junior college and an administrative board of the senior college, to work out a plan having in mind the following principles:

1. The substitution of fields of study for the present course units
2. Provision for the exceptional student to make more progress
3. The abolition of the system of counting credits for a degree, and the substitution therefore of comprehensive examinations
4. Greater emphasis upon the student's opportunity and responsibility for his own education.

It will be noted that for approximately two years before the plan of general

education went into effect study and discussion took place. Before specific recommendations were proposed, the principles of a new plan were understood and, for the most part, accepted. Nor should it be forgotten that great and respected leaders among the faculty stood behind a new plan of general education—leaders such as Messrs. Judd, Merriam, Millis, Boucher, and, when he came to the University, Robert M. Hutchins. Support for the plan was greatest among the humanities and social-sciences faculties, the natural-science people fearing that proper provision could not be made in any new scheme for laboratory work or for meeting the requirements of the American Medical Association for preprofessional training. Every opportunity was taken to inform departments and associated schools of the nature and objectives of a general-education plan, so that in 1930 when the plan was submitted to the faculty and to the Senate it was not something new and unheard of. Many who favored the plan, as one would expect, did not like the details.

It was at this point the fear arose that events were moving too fast. Should there not be more time for study? Should there not be further committees and subcommittees? What would other universities think of us for tampering with that sacred institution, the four-year college? Above all, what would the North Central Association think? As a result of these questionings an opposition party of delay developed. We were saved, however, from a threatened period of delay by the firm hand of President Hutchins.

What were the specific features of this new plan that called for a reorientation of the professional lives of so many of us? In large part the plan affected most particularly the first two years of the college—that is, the junior college. All one-term classes were either abolished or greatly changed. Most of them were abolished. This hit some of us, who had developed what were conceded to be outstanding offerings, a cruel blow. Yet I know of no case of sulking or of petty obstruction; everyone seemed to feel that he was participating in a new but worth-while experiment, and that the sacrifice of his personal wishes would

possibly bring outstanding results. At the start four general one-year courses in the biological sciences, the humanities, the physical sciences, and the social sciences were set up. To these were added in a short time second one-year courses in biology and the social sciences. Beginning and intermediate courses in the languages were organized into one-year sequences. To prepare the four general courses the dean of the college chose an outstanding scholar and teacher either from the faculty or from outside the faculty ranks. In the case of the physical sciences two chairmen were chosen. Chairmen held the rank of either full or associate professor. The chairmen in consultation with the dean chose others to assist in the preparation of the syllabi, men who would in turn serve as the leading lecturers of the courses. The lecturing, however, was not to be confined to these people. Since a central idea of the plan was to give the students a chance to come under some instruction of the best research scholars, whom ordinarily they would never even see, it was understood that all members of the graduate faculty were subject to draft.

The preparation of the syllabi of the new courses constituted an immense task. The plan approved in the early spring was scheduled to be in full operation in the following fall. Because of the magnitude of the work, faculty members engaged in the preparation of the syllabi were relieved of all teaching assignments during the spring and summer terms. The plan provided that the syllabi had to be so complete that any good student might take a syllabus and, without ever entering a class, prepare for the general examination through his independent efforts. All compulsory attendance at classes was abolished. Some waited in fear and trembling to see the results of this arrangement. We were all happily surprised. Attendance at all lectures and classes ran about the same as of yore.

Through the spring and summer the committees labored. Constant contact was maintained with the various departments. Plans and counterplans were sent around for corrections, suggestions, and criticism. Most people on these committees lived through a new expe-

rience—the experience of sitting down with their colleagues in other disciplines with the objective of forming a new, synthesized program. If I may refer to my own experience with the committee in charge of the formation of the social-sciences syllabus, I may say that it took the three of us, representing economics, sociology, and political science, about six weeks to learn each other's language and point of view. We, like the members of the other committees, realized that our first production could represent only a partial synthesis, and that we must through a period of time endeavor to reach a satisfactory integration of material. It must be said that as far as the social sciences were concerned the first syllabus resembled more three separate courses in economics, sociology, and political science than an integrated, year's course in the social sciences. All committees met similar difficulties. For this reason the first syllabi were carefully designated as "preliminary," and it was decided that no copies would be printed for general sale to the public.

In a brief space it is not possible to describe fully the basis upon which the courses were built up. I shall, however, try to summarize each:

Biological sciences. (I might say here parenthetically that the biological-sciences committee was able to produce the most thoroughly integrated syllabus.) The content of the course was arranged in four sections: (1) variety and relationship among living organisms—a brief survey of plant and animal kingdoms; (2) the dynamics of living organisms, with particular emphasis upon the physiology and psychology of man in health and disease; (3) organic evolution, heredity, and eugenics; (4) ecology—the relation of living organisms to their environment and to each other.

Humanities. This course used the materials of history as a foundation and framework for the presentation of the literature, philosophy, religion, and art of the civilizations that have contributed most conspicuously to the shaping of the contemporary outlook on life.

Physical sciences. The subject-matter included the following: (1) the earth as an astronomical body, the moon, the sun and its family of planets; (2) the

fundamental laws of energy, heat and temperature as manifestations of atomic and molecular motion, relations between matter and electricity; (3) the many varieties of forms that matter assumes in our environment—chemical elements, compounds, mixtures, solutions, and their distribution in nature; (4) the analytical character and method of the physical sciences, the place, character, and effectiveness of the contribution of mathematics in the development of the physical sciences; (5) the earth and its materials; (6) meteorological processes and phenomena.

Social sciences. In this course the impact of the complex of forces generally described as the industrial revolution on economic, social, and political institutions was considered. It began with an examination of the problems and methods of investigation peculiar to the social sciences. The economic, social, and political order that preceded the industrial revolution was then contrasted with contemporary society. The processes of transformation bringing about these changes were traced with a view to providing a suitable background for the understanding of the major social problems of the present day.

No one assumed that these syllabi might not have been written from other angles or with different approaches. The feeling was general that one had to begin somewhere, and that the one pitfall to be avoided was the settling down of any of these plans into final form without long trial and constant evaluation. In all the years since 1931, when the plan was first put into effect, this admonition has been kept in mind.

In March, 1931, the University Senate approved the setting up of a Board of Examinations, to be composed of three members appointed by President Hutchins—these three to be selected primarily because of their competence in examination methods, a representative of each of the divisions of the University, a representative of each of the professional schools using comprehensive examinations, and a University Examiner, chairman *ex officio*. The representatives from the divisions were appointed by the deans of the several divisions. The Board of Examinations was given

the task of determining the policies to be used in the formulation and administration of comprehensive examinations. The Board also chose the Chief Examiner in charge of the technical staff and office force. This Board, it should be understood, is assumed to be a policy-framing body, not an active administering body. Its functions include such matters as frequency of and dates on which examinations shall be offered, fees for second, third, or more examinations, the length of examinations in time, and any other matters of general policy.

The Chief Examiner was made responsible for routine matters, such as the correction of papers and grade distribution and, in addition, the appointment of four special technicians, one each for biological sciences, humanities, physical sciences, and social sciences. Each of these technicians was given faculty rank. Generally, these technicians were persons who were pursuing or had pursued work in the fields to which they were assigned, and had, in addition, special training in examination methods and techniques.

It should be understood that no special form of comprehensive examination was prescribed—that was a matter left for continuing study by the Board of Examinations and the instructors and technicians involved in any special field. As a matter of fact, extensive use was made of the new forms of objective testing.

From my own experience as a member of the staff in the social sciences I recall, with no joy, the long hours spent in staff meetings in the preparation of examinations. Ordinarily a student would take the comprehensive examination in a general course at the end of a year, but since a student might offer himself for a comprehensive at the conclusion of any quarter of the school year, comprehensive examinations were always in the making. Those of us who lectured or taught in special sections met regularly with the specialist on examination techniques. We supplied subject-matter and the specialist advised on the form the questions should take. Many sessions lasted from seven o'clock in the evening until one or two in the morning. I understand that at the present time the

procedure is less arduous and time-consuming.

The passing of the comprehensive examination replaced the old credit system for individual courses. Each student was required, therefore, in order to complete junior-college work, to pass comprehensive examinations in the biological sciences, the humanities, the physical sciences, and the social sciences. In addition, he had to pass an examination in English composition. He might prepare for this examination by a year's sequence course or he could take a special-placement test shortly after his entrance and qualify for exemption from this requirement. The student was allowed two general electives, which he could satisfy by taking year-long courses in languages, history, art, philosophy, and mathematics, or second-year general courses in the biological sciences or the social sciences. In order that students who intended to transfer at any time to other schools might give sufficient evidence of work in terms of the older system, special voluntary examinations were given at the end of each quarter in all the general courses. All students, however, were urged to take these examinations for the purpose of testing their progress. All past examinations of a comprehensive nature were to be made available to the students through the University bookstore.

While the examinations, according to plan, were to include only such subject-matter as appeared in the various syllabi (in order that a student should have full freedom to work on his own or to attend classes and lectures), it was difficult to follow this avowed purpose. The lecturers were, for the most part, dynamic, resourceful, and effective. They were continually reminded of important data omitted from the syllabi—data any educated person in the field should be tested on. They did not wish to be confined to repeating and expounding the prescribed readings, but, for the most part, they had to be content with a system of selection in the examination questions or the inclusion of the material in next year's syllabus.

Each general course consisted of two lectures per week and two class-discussion periods. The lecture sections ran well over 300 in number. The discus-

sion sections were, however, kept within small limits—25 or 30. In the general introductory courses in the biological and the physical-sciences-demonstration laboratory supplanted the older form of laboratory work.

The reorganization of the junior college brought about a reorganization of the whole University. That part of the University above the junior-college level became known as the division. In turn, the two years formerly known as the senior college were merged with the graduate sections; the old Bachelor of Arts degree was dropped, and only the master's and doctor's degrees were awarded. The division, however, was divided into four parts: the biological-science division, the humanities division, the physical-sciences division, and the social-sciences division. Over each division presides a dean of faculty, who has charge of personnel, budget, and curriculum. In addition, each division has a dean of students in charge of student relations. The college, too (now extended to four years in length by the addition of the last two years of high school, in accordance with the six-four-four plan), has its dean of faculty, and its dean of students. A dean of faculty for the whole University, and a dean of students for the same jurisdiction complete the general over-all plan.

To provide the student in the college with mature and able guidance a number of faculty advisers—about one to every 50 students—was set up. This group worked in close collaboration with the dean of students in the college. The adviser closely observed the progress of each student and, in frequent consultation, advised and encouraged him in his work and problems.

It should be noted that the members of the college faculty in most cases were members of one or the other faculties of the four divisions. At the beginning, very few belonged solely to the college faculty. The general aim was to build up as large an independent college staff as possible. It was also specifically understood that service on the college staff could bring promotion to the highest faculty rank. This would seem to be an absolutely essential condition for securing and keeping the very best personnel obtainable. It took some time before this

principle, however, was sufficiently applied.

One final problem merits attention. I am fully convinced that the plan as instituted was far superior to the older system. The students were undoubtedly better educated. The plan gave them a broad general education upon which later specialization could be successfully built. But the question still remained: upon what base was the general education built, or what tied it together? Here two schools come into conflict; the one feared the imposition of a point of view; the other feared a plan that would produce a sophisticated eclecticism with much knowledge and little wisdom. In a situation of this kind, church-affiliated institutions have the advantage of proceeding to tie things together on the basis of creed and philosophy. At the present time at The University of Chicago this tying-together function is handled through an orientation and in-

tegration course. I believe it can safely be said that most of the people that have been involved in the general-education program feel that some basic course is necessary—at either the beginning or the conclusion of the whole program. It may be the philosophy of Plato, Aristotle, Aquinas, Descartes, Kant, Hegel, or James, but some rule that other things are judged by—some springboard one leaps from—has to be provided. This does not involve with the skillful teacher a jamming of certain doctrines down the unwilling or unwitting student's throat. It assumes that both teacher and student are rational beings, and that basic principles must be arrived at—painfully, perhaps, but necessarily—through step-by-step processes of reason and logic. Otherwise, general education may emphasize beyond all reason the "general" to the neglect of the "education."

Chapter 35. General Education: Getting the Program Started in a Small Institution¹

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AS an educational program, general education no longer needs defenders to justify its existence. Wherever educators confer, general education is discussed. Though far from completely achieving the goals toward which it is directed, general education is a program that can provide a common background which will enable citizens to communicate with each other and can develop the understandings and attitudes that will enable the individual as a person and a citizen to hold and promote in common with his fellow citizens the values and ideals concerning the purposes of life and society that distinguish the members of a free society.

¹ An address presented before Group 28 of the sixth annual National Conference on Higher Education, Chicago, Illinois, April 2, 1951. Chairman of the group was Stuart Baller, Carthage College; consultant was Clarence Lee Furrow, Knox College; and recorder was Kenneth O. Walker, Goucher College.

General education means different things to different people. It must be admitted that there are programs labeled general education that fulfill the purposes and processes by the title alone. The courses have new names or are a rearrangement of subject materials; they are "general" in that they contain the subject materials of several courses within the broad field, with each subject given an allotted time and place and each separated from the others by the usual subject boundaries.

As yet there seems to be no single formula or definite procedure by which an institution can initiate and develop the type of program that will achieve the real purposes of general education. The ways are various, but many of the obstacles encountered are common to all institutions, since all programs involve faculty, students, and the learning process. It is true, of course, that many problems that seem similar are seldom

identical when viewed in their context; the dissimilarities are not always the consequence of the number of students or the size of institutions, but rather of different philosophies and characteristics of institutions.

ADMINISTRATIVE ORGANIZATION AND RESPONSIBILITY

One very real problem that may be peculiar to small colleges and is particularly crucial to the initial steps is the administrative organization and responsibility. Because of the limited number of the staff in a small college, it is difficult to create a division of general education that is completely autonomous and administered by its own staff. There are undoubtedly advantages to the institution and to the faculty when personnel resources can be utilized for the total college program, but unless some autonomy and a unified administrative organization are provided that give general education equal status with other divisions, there is a very real problem in designating responsibility for the development of the program and creating favorable opportunities for enlisting full cooperation from the staff.

Without a strong administrative unit, the various aspects of general education become so loosely bound together and so haphazardly related that the faculty members involved feel more secure within the well-defined organization of departments and divisions of specialization. General education becomes the minor concern; support and energies are given to the fields of specialization. Without a definite administrative organization, the chairmen of the divisions of specialization are prone to believe that it is their right and privilege to manipulate the activities that come within their field, whether they are in general education or in specialization. Furthermore, if these chairmen think that general education is a threat to their particular area, they can by direct and indirect attacks belittle and condemn the claims and contributions of general education. These criticisms, since they are voiced to a staff who serve both programs, can create doubt and apprehension and demand a separation of interests in favor of specialization.

If a completely autonomous division is impossible, a suggested alternative is the creating of a council on general education which is made up of a representative (not a chairman of a division) of each area in the curriculum of general education and which is given full authority to carry on all aspects of the program. To be successful, this group must have strong administrative support at all times and must zealously guard against any attempts to design courses that merely serve the interests of specialization and against the introduction of activities and content materials aimed at recruitment for particular divisions.

STRATEGIC VERSUS FRONTAL APPROACH

When the staff members responsible for a program of general education begin the task of implementing the program, they often find that it does not follow a pattern of ordered stages of development in regulated sequence. The progress and direction may be determined by the initial attack. It may be frontal or strategic. The frontal attack is usually originated by administrative officers. The process becomes a revolutionary one with sweeping and immediate changes. These changes are effected by persuasive and dynamic leaders who are able to devise means of implementing the program and can convince their faculties that the procedures and purposes determined upon are the most likely to achieve the desired outcomes. Attempts to impose programs of general education from above have been made and described. In some instances they have been successful, but many have failed because the faculty were not able to move along with the abruptness of the change. On the other hand, the strategic approach, though a much slower process, can be timed and adapted to utilize directly the available resources of personnel and indirectly can develop conditions favorable to a series of changes that evolve without pressure and by cooperative means.

In a small college the curriculum involves the total program and is of concern to every member of the faculty; the relation of general education to specialization is no mere academic question. It may be a real threat to honestly held educational beliefs; it may be a source

of frustration because of the demands of divided interests; it may result in loss of professional status as a result of participation in what some believe is a program of lower academic status; and it may seem to some a means of evading academic thoroughness and rigorous scholarship. None of these attitudes can be disregarded and no program can be successful in a small college unless the majority of the faculty can accept the basic assumptions implied in a program of general education.

It is true that in spite of their interest in students, some members of the faculty are hesitant to change their mode of teaching and separate themselves from familiar subject-matter. This unwillingness to assume an active role is often a source of irritation to those intent on developing a program. An understanding of the personal and professional problems that arise when faculty become contributing members in general education must be sought by those promoting the program if genuine cooperation is expected.

ENLISTING FACULTY COOPERATION

The exacting and time-consuming study of broad subject-matter fields is no easy task, yet those who enter into the program of general education with a full respect for the scholarship and abilities demanded will find themselves compelled to fulfill requirements more unremitting and rigorous than those presented by a simple field of specialization. In addition to learning new content and concepts, they must be subject to the evaluation of their colleagues who are already experts in the field. Administrators must also realize that it is not easy to give up the professional status that adheres to specialization and to the privileges of authority in a chosen field. Continued encouragement, rewards in terms of praise and salary, allotment of time for study and preparation of course materials, status given to the faculty and to the program—all these provided generously and consistently by the administration will be a stimulus and a source of satisfaction to those who have freely cast their lot with the program and will furnish tangible evidence to others that the program has educational significance in the college.

The timid and the stubborn may take time to be convinced of the merits of the program, but tact and patience usually work better than coercion. Certain planned procedures may bring about changes in points of view if they provide for those who are reluctant the opportunity of moving slowly into an acceptance of the program. To the scoffers and skeptics who doubt the significant values of general education and dismiss it with the time-worn, "That's what we have always done," the only proof is the program itself. If it can be demonstrated that general education is not superficial, that it is not a miscellaneous catch-all, that it is not mass education that puts a premium on mediocrity, but that it is a systematic program with procedures and purposes that are sound educationally, the doubters must end their accusations. This is no ordinary task, for the proof lies not in examinations or course credits but in the students themselves, their behavior—thinking, feeling, and acting—in college and long after they have been graduated.

ESTABLISHING ULTIMATE GOALS AND IMMEDIATE OBJECTIVES

A program can begin in many ways, but without some clear-cut general objectives and agreement concerning the meaning of general education no program can proceed far. Ultimate goals and even immediate objectives can seldom be refined and limited until the actual work in the classroom has been under way for some time. Endless disputation on philosophic concepts usually serves only to retard and hinder the organization of courses and postpone the real job of assembling the instructional materials and getting the program started in the classroom.

Since presumably every college has been established for a particular purpose, that purpose very largely determines the approach that is most appropriate in achieving the goals of general education and the means by which these can be achieved. Thus far there is no agreement that there is one approach that is best for all institutions. The approaches usually described are: the Great Books, fields of knowledge, student needs, contemporary problems, or a combination of these. If, in each of these approaches,

the students rather than the course materials become the focus of the objectives of the curriculum, the means may differ, but the ultimate goals will be similar in nature.

SELECTING CONTENT MATERIALS AND TEACHING PROCEDURES

General education, like all other educational programs, requires content materials and teaching procedures for courses. Since the emphasis is not primarily on subject-matter as an end in itself but as the basis for generalizations and unified concepts that can be integrated within teaching units and within the broad scope of the area, the usual textbooks are seldom adequate. The necessity of preparing outlines, syllabi, even textbooks, and the need for assembling materials from many sources become inevitable. The initial preparation is only the beginning. Each time the course is taught, improved means are discovered that demand revision in materials and procedures. This never-ending task can cause the program to bog down.

The old routine of the familiar textbook with easily assigned pages becomes a haven for those who find the organizing of materials in a new framework an intolerable burden. It requires a tremendous amount of time, energy, and initiative to continue to erase, discard, and add in order to improve and maintain the dynamic quality that is vital to the purpose of general education. Administrative encouragement and approval and the ability of a faculty group to work together as peers with no one demanding the role of *prima donna* by insisting on rights for himself or his particular field can lighten the load and make the work stimulating and even exciting.

OUTSIDE HELP

Even with faculty and administrative support and close harmony within the working groups occasions come when progress seems to be halted. Even though each college begins with the situation that exists and continues with its own particular resources and purposes, the values of outside help cannot be discounted. No educational program flourishes in isolation. The curriculum of

a concerted will to achieve by those within the institution, but some of the stimulus for continuing may come from sources beyond the campus. Conferences, imported consultants, and visitations to other campuses may aid the local faculty in gaining insights into their specific problems; they may serve as means in motivating some of the faculty to accept the program because they learn that "prestige" institutions are engaged in it; they may help to reveal pitfalls that can be avoided. Often the chief value of outside aid is the encouragement provided by the opportunity to compare programs with one's own and the occasion to assess the local situation by being removed from it for a short interval. Incentives and stimuli from outside sources can sometimes help to direct a program over what seemed insurmountable obstacles.

ENLISTING STUDENT INTEREST AND SUPPORT

Whether at home or away the faculty in general education find that the student always remains their chief concern. Because of the nature of the program, the needs and interests of students tend to become the focus of all deliberations and decisions. The real problem is that concerned with what happens to students because of the program, but there is always the immediate problem of gaining their support. The students' belief in the program is not attained by merely enrolling them in courses. Some will accept the requirements docilely as inevitable. Others question and rebel. Those who come with definite plans and interests want to begin their specialization immediately and to limit their education to their chosen fields. Still others question the values of some of the courses: What are the humanities worth in terms of future earning power for the chemist or athletic coach? Of what value are the courses in natural science for the girls who intend to become teachers in the elementary field or homemakers? Finally, some maintain that a college program outside specialization should be made up of free electives; prescription destroys the meaning of individual differences.

Time and counseling help to quiet the doubts and antagonisms. After a program has been in operation for four

years, a college generation has been a part of it, and as its strangeness wears off most of the students accept it as a regular part of the college program. Adequate counseling with full explanations of the meaning and purposes of the curriculum in terms of the student himself often breaks down resistance and engenders an interest in the program itself. Each course in general education must constantly and consistently demonstrate through its content and procedures that opportunities are given to students to achieve the stated purposes of the program.

EVALUATING THE PROGRAM

As attempts are made to make the program meaningful to students, the persistent question of the faculty becomes: What are we accomplishing? In each institution some kind of evaluation is constantly going on as the faculty ask themselves, "What changes are taking place in our students?" Careful observations of students' free choices in the library, their subjects of discussion in student centers, their attendance at movies, concerts, and plays, their reactions and attitudes during times of emergency and crisis in student affairs, their health habits, and their attitudes toward the "foreigner" in the class and in the community are some evidences that may give significant clues. Even if the findings are recorded, they are not always adequate for a judgment to be made concerning the effectiveness of

the program, for one often sees in behavior what one wants to see. Without a definite knowledge of what the student was, it is difficult to assess what he is becoming. The need is the development of techniques that will measure the program as it results in positive change in students' behavior, particularly in their unsupervised activities, now and in the future. Colleges are able to set up objectives in terms of desired qualities that they want students to possess, but as yet many institutions have no certain means of measuring progress and achievement that is occurring. There is a danger that if proof of accomplishment is not made, objectives may become so vague and so all-embracing that "general education" will come to mean that type of education that achieves nothing specific.

It augurs well for the program that many faculties are willing and in some cases demanding that their programs be evaluated. In the near future, as experts on evaluation are engaged or developed for every staff and as the resources of psychology, sociology, and anthropology are utilized, each institution may be able to develop its own techniques. With adequate evaluation, weaknesses can be revealed and remedied; likewise, the merits of the program can be demonstrated. When proof of accomplishment can be made by recognizable sound methods, general education will find the obstacle of status and many other impediments cleared away.

Chapter 36. Improving an Established General-Education Program¹

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WRITING of his fellow Athenians Thucydides observed, "A scheme unexecuted is with them a positive loss, a successful enterprise, a comparative

failure." We have reached a point in general education at which we may regard it as a successful enterprise; the topic assigned to me implies that we must also regard it as a comparative failure.

In the tasks which now confront us in our respective programs, we may find helpful direction and inspiration in the experiences of our colleagues in other institutions. The new periodical, *Notes and Comment on General Education*, to

¹ An address presented before Group 29 of the sixth annual National Conference on Higher Education, Chicago, Illinois, April 2, 1951. Chairman of the group was Paul L. Dressel, Michigan State College; consultant was Claude E. Hawley, United States Office of Education; and recorder was Hermann R. Muelder, Knox College.

be published three times a year by the National Committee on General Education of the NEA Department of Higher Education, is beginning at an opportune time. It will provide a medium for the sharing of experience and for the publication of progress reports that undoubtedly will prove helpful. The increasing number of volumes describing well-established programs is evidence that the faculties in these programs have had sufficient experience and have encountered problems of such general import that they believe themselves authorized to report what they have learned. It goes without saying that any faculty group studying how to improve their own program should be aware of what their colleagues in other institutions have to report. Professional competence requires this as much in general education as in any other area of specialization.

Teachers in general education need also to orient themselves to the most significant changes which are taking place at the highest levels of intellectual and scientific enterprise. If general education is to prepare young people to assume the responsibilities of citizenship in a democracy and to exercise wisely the freedom which such citizenship confers—and these are the objectives most commonly expressed—then those who administer and teach general courses must understand the ideas and forces operating in contemporary society. General education is not an educational subterfuge to justify the admission of increasing numbers of students at a time when the profession and fields of specialization cannot absorb them all. It is not a mere rearrangement of traditional subject-matter or an exploitation of new techniques in classroom instruction. It is not a process by which masses of students are introduced to a greater variety of departmental courses. It is rather a continuing process directed to the highest level of maturity possible for each individual in intellectual, social, and aesthetic experience. Its distinctive subject-matter is principles and concepts by

which facts may be related meaningfully and thus be understood and rendered effective in behavior. There is no substitute for facts in any system of education, but in general education facts must be learned as nearly as possible in their full context, without which their meaning is likely to be distorted or mistaken.

The easily made objection that no individual can possibly comprehend even a segment of knowledge thoroughly enough to understand its relationships with other segments arises quite often out of a preoccupation with specific factual information rather than with principles. At this point we can profit much from the experience of specialists who have pursued their specialties far enough to arrive at an appreciation of the interrelatedness of knowledge.

Linus Pauling has suggested that the evolution of a science proceeds through three stages. He says, "In the first stage a science is quite simple because it does not encompass very much. This is the stage of amassing facts from experiments: when only a few experiments have been carried out the number of facts established is not too great for one man to comprehend. The individual scientist can then know the whole of his science thoroughly and have a considerable acquaintance with other sciences as well. However, as time goes on and more and more experiments are performed the number of known facts becomes greater, until finally they are so numerous that to master a field becomes a full lifetime's work. It is only after a science has passed through this stage of great complexity that the third and final stage can be reached. I think that it has arrived in physics and is not far away in chemistry. This is the stage of simplification, when in order to master a subject it is not necessary to memorize the results of all the experiments that have been performed, but only to learn the fundamental principles that encompass all these results."²

The implications of Mr. Pauling's analysis are of great importance to teachers in general education. The justification of a general course in the natural sciences lies in the emphasis it places on broad principles which encompass the known facts without requiring the student to master the experimental tech-

² Pauling, Linus. "The Place of Chemistry in the Integration of the Sciences." *Main Currents in Modern Thought*. Vol. VII, No. 4, Winter, 1950, pp. 108-111.

niques by which the facts were learned. The principles thus enable the student to organize whatever pertinent factual data he may have acquired, or will later acquire, into understandable, meaningful concepts. The relationships of science to science, and of the sciences to the arts are discoverable at the level of principles rather than at the level of facts. Thus a vital concern of all who are engaged in improving general programs becomes the identification of principles and concepts in their fields.

In this function the ideal situation is one of close and sympathetic collaboration between the subject-matter specialist and the teacher in general education. Wherever the institution provides an education in which general and specialized curricula are treated as being complementary rather than mutually exclusive, there are conditions favorable to such collaboration. One of the criteria of effectiveness of general education on a university campus is the extent to which each kind of discipline affects the other. Fortunately, most general-education programs were instituted by subject-matter specialists and additional teachers have been recruited from subject-matter areas. The necessary rapport has thus been well maintained. We should be encouraged at this point by the increasing evidence of willingness on the part of our colleagues in special fields to cooperate with us. Some of them have written articles to call attention to the contributions which their fields may make to general education. We welcome their help. Similarly, it has become clear to them that general courses have value to prospective specialists, and it is gratifying to note that majors in chemistry, mathematics, and physics are encouraged, even required in some colleges, to take the general course in science, and that majors in English, art, and foreign language are being directed by their major advisers to take the general course in humanities.

The identifying of broad principles of knowledge as the core of general courses, with the aid of specialists in the various disciplines, is, however, only one of the agenda in the continual improvement of a general program. We are particularly concerned in general education with the relevance of what is

learned to persistent life situations, with the behavioral as well as the internal and organizational aspects of concepts. Here again, we look to our colleagues in psychology and social psychology for help and are gratified to learn that much valuable work is being done to throw light upon this relationship.

Another problem which has received attention in this connection is the integration of knowledge. Much criticism has been leveled by proponents of general education at the fragmentation of knowledge in traditional specialized curricula but as yet no clear and generally acceptable statement has set forth the behavior values of integrated knowledge. We assume that general education should be concerned with the development of the whole human being. To what extent is this development dependent upon a unified and harmonious picture of the world in the mind of the individual?

A recent survey made by Harold C. Hantz of meanings of integration, as the term is being used in literature of general education, distinguishes six kinds of integration. These are: "(1) integration as consistent system, (2) integration as interrelatedness or noting interrelations within a given subject-matter and of a given subject-matter with other subject-matters, (3) integration as unification in terms of concepts, (4) psychological integration, (5) integration as the spirit and method of free inquiry, and (6) aesthetic integration." Mr. Hantz examines each meaning critically (except the last-named) and raises a number of pertinent questions which we in general education would do well to consider. He favors the kind of integration to be found in the spirit and method of free inquiry. "No designers of a curriculum can foresee all the issues, major and minor, with which the students of any period are to be confronted. Would they wrap up the solutions for these problems in neat packages for the students to buy at the college mart, or would they better prepare the student with the attitudes and methods of inquiry which might make possible the student's own genuine solutions? Is it not here that we have so often felt our failures in teaching—that we have turned out students incapable of meeting their

problems of living in a genuinely experimental, fruitful way?"³

Thus far we have been concerned with some of the questions which arise in efforts to improve established programs by examining or reexamining the philosophy of general education upon which the programs are based. Attention should be given to principles of knowledge as these are ascertained and simplified by specialists in their respective fields, that clarification of curricular problems may be expected from the advances being made in the knowledge of how concepts are formed, that the advantages and disadvantages of various kinds of integration be studied so that we may not deceive ourselves into thinking that we are achieving the impossible or that we have transcended limitations simply by ignoring them. Continual restudy of the curriculum is essential so that basic concepts and goals may become more clearly defined.

In this restudy techniques of evaluation become a primary concern. Goals in general education have often been expressed in such fine-sounding generalities that our colleagues in traditional curricula have wondered whether general courses and traditional courses differ only in the selection of facts to be emphasized. Values have been asserted with little evidence that they are actually being realized by students in general programs. Evaluation studies are now an imperative if general education is to continue as a vital phase of education.

That this need has been felt is evidenced by the Cooperative Study of Evaluation in General Education sponsored by the American Council on Education. Under the leadership of Paul Dressel, representatives of 20 institutions divided into six intercollege committees, are studying problems in evaluation in six areas. Three committees are concerned with subject-matter fields: social science, science, and humanities; two are working in the more comprehensive and skill-centered areas of critical thinking and communications; and one is

studying the evaluation of attitudes, values, and personal adjustment of students. Mr. Dressel has defined the three major purposes of the Study as follows: "(1) to identify major goals of general education and to select from these certain key ones for careful study and definition in terms of specific behaviors, (2) to develop methods of appraising the progress of individuals toward these goals selected for emphasis, (3) to collect evidence of the progress of individuals from the beginning of college to the end of at least the first two years of college."

Speaking for one of the participating groups, I can report that in the 16 months since the Study began certain values have resulted which underscore the importance of evaluation as a means of stimulating faculty enthusiasm and keeping interest at a high level. The interdependence of objectives in general courses is becoming apparent, for evaluation in terms of student behavior re-emphasizes the complexity of the responses made by the total individual. Faculties in various general courses are being led to see the interrelatedness of their respective objectives and the complementary relation of each course to others in the program. Individual instructors have become increasingly critical of their own tests and are seeking expert aid in devising better measuring instruments in their courses. Existing tests have been examined, and the need for improved instruments has been recognized. We expect that by wide experimental use of tests produced by the committees in the six areas under study marked improvement in testing will come.

The Science Committee has concentrated on measuring some outcomes of science education about which little was known. They have studied specifically the problem of measuring students' ability to read and interpret scientific materials written in popular style, the extent to which students can apply scientific knowledge to everyday situations, and the extent to which students recognize the kinds of problems faced by scientists and how they are solved.

These examples suffice to show the kinds of problems being studied by the cooperating groups. The entire Study

³ Hantz, Harold C. "The Idea of Integration in Education." Symposium on General Education, Oklahoma Agricultural and Mechanical College, December 11, 1950. Unpublished manuscript.

exemplifies the value of cooperative research. Faculty members return from workshops and committee meetings with renewed enthusiasm and the willingness to try out new ideas and techniques. Their own ideas are sharpened and course objectives clarified by expressing and defending them before colleagues from other institutions. Reports made by individual participants on the inter-college committee become the occasion of sharp debate and often result in experimental procedures in the local program. In effect, such cooperation is an excellent means of maintaining high professional morale and the vitality of the local program.

Related to the problem of evaluation is the recognition of the importance of student motivation in general education. Administrative ingenuity and development of novel teaching techniques will avail nothing unless students are genuinely motivated to learn. We know that appreciation of the primary values of general education at the college level calls for a greater maturity than does appreciation of the values of vocational and professional curricula. Improvement of established programs is likely to result from the recognition of this fact.

How can students in general programs be motivated? The answer must certainly include recognition of the fact that the most persuasive argument for general education is a person who is generally educated. The teacher must be prepared to demonstrate by his own behavior the validity of the aims of general education. If the student is expected to acquire a well-rounded knowledge and to identify interrelationships among the various fields, if good citizenship for the student involves intelligent interest in present problems and in creative social forces, if critical thinking and rigorous use of scientific methods be demanded at the student level, it is important that teachers of general education exemplify these values.

Humility is inevitable to the teacher whose vision transcends his own field. In his campus associations with students he himself becomes a student, and while he is respected for what he knows best, he cannot behave as though inarticulateness in areas of common life betokens expertness in one field. What this means,

of course, is that general-education programs must provide for as much extra-class association of teacher and student as is possible, not overlooking the special demands made upon the teacher's time by preparation to teach courses which do not wholly lie in the area of his graduate study. The teacher's enthusiasm for learning and for broad intellectual, social, and aesthetic experience becomes contagious.

In some programs the practice of inviting students to meet with faculty committees in revising courses has proved beneficial to both students and faculty. Students can often make suggestions as to choice of materials and methods of presentation which enable teachers to meet student needs more effectively. Students may also be converted from apathy or indifference or even active antagonism by discovering how earnestly and sincerely teachers are trying to improve courses of study.

Motivation is sometimes attempted in orientation courses. The value of an orientation course designed to provide practice in study methods is questionable. It would be far better for instructors to take time at the beginning of the general course to describe the study practices most desirable for that course and to make assignments accordingly than to subject the student to study of techniques divorced from subject-matter. An orientation in the philosophy of general education at the freshman level can be helpful—not that all of the basic values of general education can be fully understood at that level, but the invitation to learning can be made more intelligible and compelling than college catalogues usually make it.

One prerequisite to the improvement of many established programs is a more realistic appraisal of the knowledge and skills students have when they enter college. What concepts have they already acquired? What vocabulary limitations must the teacher recognize in presenting his material? From what backgrounds of experience do students draw in interpreting and adding new concepts? The teacher must teach with his idea of the end-product of the educative process exerting continual pull upon him, but his methods and course content must

be adjusted to the realistically appraised human material he has before him.

It is obvious that a closer articulation of high-school and college programs is desirable. General education conceived as a continuous process, not as a terminal education, is of equal concern to teachers at both secondary and college levels. Lack of articulation is now responsible for much waste in time and resources. There is no good reason why the basic essentials of written and oral communication cannot be adequately taught in high school and practice in the use of these essentials be considered an integral part of the general program in college. Teachers of general-education courses ought to be concerned with problems of communication and ought to increase their competence to deal with those problems where they are most vital to the student. At the college level, more attention needs to be given to the skills of listening and reading, skills which are often slighted because of the traditional emphasis upon written composition. The attack upon the whole problem of communication has greater promise of success when the high-school and college faculties recognize their respective responsibilities. At neither level has sufficient thought been given to what makes communication really effective.

Some attention must also be given to the students who demonstrate lack of capacity to do the kind of thinking required in general courses. Colleges are now admitting many young people who cannot make the leaps of imagination necessary to relate objective data to principles or to think in abstractions and generalities. The selectivity which operates in preprofessional programs obviously does not apply to the general program. If a student fails in a preprofessional curriculum, he may be directed to another field more suited to his abilities. If a student fails a course which is designed to fit him for the common life, there is no other curriculum to which his adviser can direct him. In the general course the class represents the entire range of student abilities. Whether to section the class on the basis of ability or to adapt teaching methods and content to the entire range is a persistent question for the general-education staff.

In some programs where the general courses are effectively taught at the freshman and sophomore levels, students have asked for more advanced general courses to be taken as electives in the upper division. When this occurs, the teachers who have been responsible for such stimulation should be given opportunity to teach courses at the higher level. It is encouraging to find that students want to continue their general education into the upper division. The designing of courses at the higher level, often to be taught cooperatively by teachers from related fields, may have a beneficial effect upon the entire program. It also makes possible the offering of broad divisional and functional fields of concentration for students who are not desirous of narrower specialization.

Faculty advisers are continually calling attention to the need for individually adapted plans of study which cut across departmental lines and which are given meaning by experiences previously obtained in general courses. A chemistry major becomes interested in form as studied in the general course in humanities and elects courses in English literature. He soon discovers that form is a kind of common denominator by which scientific knowledge and aesthetic experience are brought into meaningful relationship. Another student requests a course in philosophy because the general physical-science course has raised questions of meanings and values. Many students whose time is fully taken with the requirements of highly specialized and professional curricula are beginning to resent the restrictions which prevent their taking general courses and are looking to extra-curricular activities to supplement their education.

The central fact to which we must continually return in considering the improvement of established programs is that the effectiveness of general education depends mainly on the quality of teaching. No curricular adjustments, or extra-curricular activities, or student advisement, or mechanical equipment, or administrative support can compensate for the lack of good teaching. The successful teacher is aware of the great issues of the present and is oriented to the needs and the resources of society; he

is continually striving to discover how his own course may complement others in the general program; he is willing to use the best available instruments and techniques to evaluate his work and to revise his course in the light of the evidence obtained; he welcomes the opportunity to cooperate with specialists in other fields, both to clarify basic principles of knowledge and to help students plan their total educational program; he uses the methods of instruction which are best for him; he welcomes extra-class intercourse with students and encourages them to think critically not only on the immediate problems of their personal lives but on the

big questions which men continue to raise when they are living at the height of their powers. Contact with students and sharing in the life of the community have taught him that in spite of all the evidence of aimlessness and moral decay in modern society, there is in the common man a deep-seated ambition to discover the meaning of his existence and to welcome the kind of education that equips him for such discovery. To such a teacher general education is not confined by academic pattern nor can it properly end with high school or college or graduate school; it becomes synonymous with man's unending search for meaning and value.

Chapter 37. General Education—Bases for Determination of Content and Method¹

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IN recent years colleges and universities have been gradually serving a larger number of youth, many from homes never before represented in college, and many youth from abroad. They have been expanding their services to adults and to industrial, commercial, agricultural, and professional interests. As a result, their programs have been built more by accretion than by design. It is wholesome, therefore, that we review again the nature of higher education. Such questions as these are pertinent:

1. What functions should colleges and universities serve in an increasingly technological society, assuming that higher education should change with the cultural developments in a democratic society?

2. Who should go to college today, and to what extent should the student population affect the character of the curricula in higher education?

3. To what extent should higher education assume responsibility for enabling our youth

to be fitted for leading roles in world leadership, a relatively changed position of importance for the United States?

4. What curriculum changes are necessary to perform these responsibilities?

Such questions as these assume new importance as America advances in its revolutionary concept of a free society for free men. Academic assumptions will need to be challenged; reduction in traditional requirements will become imperative; greater unity of courses around the concerns of human life will be required; certainly and primarily, there will be the need for arriving at some decent consensus on the social philosophy of higher education, the student's welfare, the need of the United States for citizens equipped for world leadership, and the constant demand that our present social ills and confusions be remedied—all these will be determinants in formulating the program of higher education for today and tomorrow.

It is clear that with society a sick patient, and with an increasing diversity of youth seeking higher education, we need to consider wisely what curricula will produce a unity of educational purpose and a nucleus of common values. The movement current today in higher education is not a transitory fad but a

¹ An address presented before Group 30 of the sixth annual National Conference on Higher Education, Chicago, Illinois, April 2, 1951. Chairman of the group was Ben F. Rogers, Jr., The Florida State University; consultant was Otto W. Snarr, State Teachers College, Moorhead, Minnesota; and recorder was Robert G. Bone, University of Illinois.

serious conviction that educators must seek to make known to youth the values which promote a society of free men. Broadly speaking, this is the nature and function of general education.

Our graduate training of college and university professors in this country is based upon scholastic achievements in separate disciplines, accompanied by research for extending knowledge in a chosen field. Academic standing and promotion follow, in general, scholarly growth and publication. There is little wonder that there would be great differences of opinion as to what constitutes the process or sequence of logic which will produce the free man. It is not surprising that each adherent to faith in a given field would support vigorously those concepts to which he had devoted his life. Obviously, then, we find difficulty in securing faculty unity on a set of values, or of establishing relevance of separate disciplines to common values, or of finding professors competent or even interested in trying to bring their own scholarship to bear upon the solution of common problems.

Thus general education is conceived and practiced differently within and among institutions. One will take the "Great Books" approach, like St. John's College; another will take the fields-of-knowledge approach, like Chicago and Columbia; a third will take the student-needs approach, like the General College at Minnesota and San Francisco State; a fourth, like Sarah Lawrence, considers any course to have general-education values. Still others prefer an eclectic approach and refuse to follow any unified philosophy to guide them in their organization.

If unity and cadre of common values are to be derived, several factors must be considered, chiefly these:

1. *The cultural heritage.* Individuals live in a group and are affected greatly by the mores and antecedents of the social groups about them. An acquaintance with the forces that are so dominant in our lives becomes one of the purposes of our educational system. Truly education need not be the same for youth obeying Mr. Stalin and for those criticizing Mr. Truman.

2. *The needs of society.* The rapid changes due to scientific research and technological production have created vast social problems. Individuals have deviated from generally accepted standards, and have brought disfavor upon themselves. Tolerance of destructive behavior and intolerance of continuous social change alike indicate the need for a regular review of social processes and values. One of the most important social needs today is the need to remake our culture. Primarily we are interested in stability and in the *status quo*, if they seem to provide a reasonable measure of prosperity to individuals. The whole concept of the plasticity of culture is one we need to make more intelligible.

Lawrence Frank expressed it this way: "In the history of ideas and social development, this discovery of the plasticity of culture may rank as one of the greatest of man's achievements since, from the beginning of history, he has been at the mercy of supposed necessities—the divine right of kings, the power of the church, and all the other forms of sovereignty and their justification by social and religious theorists, with the continual sacrifice of the individual life to the most aggressive or unscrupulous."²

3. *The needs of individuals.* Needs arise from biological inheritance and social experience. Elements of adjustment and rebellion, coupled with satisfaction and despair, are always present in each individual. The free man is both an individual and a social person. He has some needs he satisfies in common with others, and some he solves largely by his own endeavor.

The objectives of general education are based upon the needs of society and of youth in a given time and place. If the goal of America is to provide an environment where freedom can flourish, then the function of general education is to develop free men who will design a society conducive to their philosophy, men who have a common understanding and agreement upon certain values which they will observe and protect, a faith rooted in a belief in human relations between man and man, a code of individual and public behavior consistent with a good society, a character of mind which substitutes individual reason for authoritarian control and which is open to truth discovered through research in both the social and natural sciences, a quality of judgment characteristic of stable maturity, and a self-discipline sufficient to permit society to operate in harmony with the principles of virtue without undue individual or group restraint.

² Frank, Lawrence Kelso. "Society as the Patient." *American Journal of Sociology* 42:335-344; November, 1936.

If these be the goals of general education, they should be stated and debated until common understanding and general agreement are reached within a given faculty. Once this is done within specific institutions, reciprocity should be established among them. When the general goals are accepted, they should be stated in behavioral terms, not definite enough to restrict variety and individuality, but sufficiently specific to be determinants in choosing from among all human experience that most likely to achieve the goal of a free man.

This process is a very difficult one to follow in a given faculty for several reasons: (1) general education, like freedom, is difficult to define accurately and specifically; (2) many faculties are indifferent or inexperienced in defining goals and relating teaching to them; (3) administrative leadership is often so hazy and indefinite that the definition of purposes either appears pointless or not to vary from present experience; (4) some faculty members are so engrossed in their own fields of scholarship that such statements of purpose tend to make them fearful of an idea they would not approve; (5) some, realizing the additional labor and energy involved in reorganizing the curriculum, resist it from the very start; (6) some fear the encroachment of general education upon their own course offerings prerequisite to a major and thus object to any progress toward increased unity of lower-division offerings; (7) some are totally unprepared by temperament and training to relate around common goals their subject disciplines; (8) many believe firmly that the traditional sequence of subjects will achieve the goals of general education better than any other scheme; (9) some look upon the unified approach and the broader implications and integrations of human experience as less scholarly, less difficult, and less worthy of respect than separate field courses; and, finally, (10) some faculty members are interested only in making Albert Einsteins and consider all else wasteful.

Different methods have been followed in securing cooperation and understanding. Harvard appointed committees to prepare a statement of supporting philosophy and need and an appropriate curriculum. Chicago worked for many years by

committee, administration, and faculty discussions, first trying to secure faculty approval of a philosophy and then of experimentation with it in specific fields. Syracuse started with a fact-finding self-survey, followed by a series of evaluations of existing opinions and programs, and later by statements of objectives with recommendations for course changes. Colgate faculty has been interested in objectives and seems to have developed an understanding of them and their importance. Similar situations prevail at Boston, Stephens, and San Francisco State. At the latter we spent two years in discussion, conference, and faculty study of the objectives of our general-education program and the needs of our students. At Columbia College the first work on general education was done nearly 30 years ago when a small group of young men in the social-science departments suggested that in place of certain required departmental courses, a divisional course in social science cutting across departmental lines be substituted. Instant opposition developed, but by careful planning and by many conferences a few prominent professors accepted the idea and promoted it in the general faculty. Later followed a faculty committee; objectives and advantages of the course were outlined; materials and content were prepared; faculty approval was secured by a close vote.

It is clear that programs of general education differ as to their content and approaches. A few characteristics, however, are common in the situations where general education has succeeded. Chief among these are:

1. There has been a clear notion on the part of those participating in the program of the nature and purposes of the general-education program.
2. The quality of organization and teaching has been good, very good.
3. The chief administrative officer has been deeply interested in the program. There is no substitute for wise, informed, and progressive leadership at the top. Where this has been lacking, the programs have either failed, been weak, or been restricted to a few single courses or fields.
4. If there is to be an extensive reorganization of the entire lower-division program, there must be full understanding by the faculty of the limitations of the traditional program and

there will need to be what amounts to a social movement within the faculty.

5. Rewards of salary, prestige, and promotion must be given as fully to those in the general-education program as to those in any other program in the college.

6. There must be faculty recognition of the value of the program; it must be the basic program of the college and not an alternate for terminal or inferior students.

7. There must be ample time provided for the student to acquire the desired competences, and the general-education program must be protected from encroachment by the specialized fields and must not be organized to contribute to any one of them more than to another.

8. General-education courses should be planned the same as any other courses, and with as great care, to achieve specific goals for which the courses are designed. It is not possible or feasible to expect every course or every faculty member to be equally effective in achieving these goals. A certain group of courses, some required and some to be chosen from a group, should be designated as general-education courses, and the remaining courses in the institution should be organized and taught primarily for another purpose.

If these characteristics be important, a reorganization of the curriculum, designed to achieve the goals of general education as well as the specialized courses to follow, will be essential. The job simply cannot be done by designating a few existing courses, by allowing students to choose any elective course, or by compromise between departments as to how many units of each subject will be required of all students. Building a college curriculum to fit the purpose of higher education in modern America is a long, arduous, and difficult task, as those at Minnesota, Chicago, Harvard, and other places will attest. Furthermore, there is no one way to do it or one program that will achieve the desired results in all institutions. It is obvious from the programs already developed that the elimination of free election is being accepted and special courses designed to achieve specific goals are being substituted.

Since the better-known programs have been given considerable publicity in various sources, I should like to describe very briefly one now in process, one which has not yet been reported because we are not ready to do so. I refer to the one at San Francisco State College.

We began our program four years ago by a general faculty meeting at which several questions were raised. Among them were these: (1) What is the function of our institution when we are surrounded by three junior colleges, a parochial college for women and a graduate university, a famous private university, and one of the largest public universities in the world? (2) Who attends our institution and for what purposes? Where do they come from? What are their abilities, interests, expectancies, goals? (3) What does society expect us to do for these youth? (4) What should we do for them to enable them to live successfully in a free society and to keep it free? (5) What vocational training should we offer?

The faculty voted to set in motion several committees to study these questions and to report. When our reports were ready, we took three days from our teaching and all went to Asilomar, a conference ground near famous Carmel. There we discussed these reports and their implications. Then we returned and studied our problems further. We appointed committees to formulate objectives for general education. Later, committees were set up to propose the knowledge, skills, and materials which might achieve these goals, the distribution of these into teaching units, the qualifications for faculty membership, and the administrative procedures, counseling, and school organization required. This required three years of study and discussion among the faculty, two other conferences near Carmel, and finally total faculty consideration and approval. Then followed experimentation, first only with freshmen, then with both sophomores and freshmen, and then evaluation of our success.

Our final decision led to the establishment of 45 semester hours of work for general education, required of all students, except that adjustments are made for transfers and a few preprofessional students in medicine and dentistry. These units are distributed as follows: (1) a study of personal growth and development and the selection of an appropriate occupation, six hours; (2) development of skills in reading, writing, and speaking appropriate to individual needs and affected by personalities of the students,

five hours; (3) acquaintance with the fundamental principles of the democratic way of life, the institutions men have formed to serve them, the economic theories underlying our system of free enterprise, and the fundamental issues that are at stake among nations of the world today, 12 hours; (4) the understanding of the requisites of a sound and happy home and family life, two hours; (5) a study of the values that guide men and the formulation of individual values that will sustain young people in a modern world, five hours; (6) an understanding of the biological nature of human growth and health and of the gains in physical science which have so affected the life of every person, ten hours; (7) development of individual skills in sports for health and recreation, three hours; (8) a study of the creative mind and its effects upon art, music, drama, and the dance, two hours.

The general-education movement to-

day is one which moves higher education from fragmentation and dispersion to unity and synthesis. It is designed to combine the egocentric needs of youth and the compelling needs of our society. It is a developing consciousness on the part of a college faculty that all of them are concerned with the general education of their students and that each faculty should participate in building the program.

Building such a program is a four-step process: (1) set the goals; (2) organize the machinery to reach them; (3) continuously revise both the objectives and content; (4) evaluate the relation between the goals and the materials and methods of instruction. This sounds easy, but it is very difficult and requires strong administrative leadership, patience, energy, many hours of faculty discussion and preparation, and much clear thinking.

Chapter 38. Improving Undergraduate Programs for the Preparation of Elementary and Secondary Teachers¹

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PROGRAMS of teacher education are seldom static. They vary a great deal year to year, from institution to institution, and from state to state. When forced to make choices among these variations, one must protect himself by a certain amount of verbal camouflage. Consequently, insofar as the judgments made in this paper are rational, they will be derived from the following criteria:

First, a program based upon known psychological principles of learning, adjustment, and maturation is assumed to be an improvement over a program in which these principles are ignored.

Second, a program governed by democratic principles of order is assumed to

be an improvement over programs in which *laissez-faire* or autocratic principles of order operate.

Third, a program built upon the realities of existing school and community situations is assumed to be better than a program in which these realities are disregarded.

With this nod to intellectual honesty, let us proceed with the analysis. The discussion will be divided into four sections—group work in teacher education, the curriculum, quality control of personnel, and the development of professional spirit. In each section there will be a brief presentation of some promising practices which will be followed by an enumeration of some of the problems encountered in these practices.

GROUP WORK IN TEACHER EDUCATION

Perhaps the most important development in teacher education in our generation has been the calculated policy of involving greater segments of our pro-

¹ An address presented before Group 32 of the sixth annual National Conference on Higher Education, Chicago, Illinois, April 2, 1951. Chairman of the group was E. B. Robert, Louisiana State University; consultant was E. T. McSwain, Northwestern University; consultant on public relations was G. H. Holmes, Iowa State Teachers College; and recorder was J. Franklin Hunt, Hamilton College.

fession in the task of preparing teachers. Although cooperation is probably one of the most ancient of human activities, recent efforts have led to a marked increase of cooperation in teacher-education programs. This may have come about through a recognition of the tremendous task faced in preparing enough teachers to meet the demand of increased public-school enrollments, but some of the advance is undoubtedly due to a better intellectualization of the processes of cooperation, making possible its use as a deliberate instrument of policy.

Cooperative activities are pervading the entire structure of our efforts to produce better teachers. The simplest instances of it are found when several staff members from different disciplines join to conduct senior seminars, when a large part of the faculty unites to develop a program of general education, or when a fall planning session is held in which the entire faculty participates in determining institutional policies and procedures. Variants may be observed in the advisory-council movement. Some institutions have councils composed of representatives of various social agencies in the community to help in providing experiences for students which increase their understanding and skill in dealing with children. In other instances supervising teachers and administrators are represented by a council to help in planning student-teaching experiences. Still broader councils made up of public-school people from the service area are being created in some colleges to advise with the staff concerning institutional problems. The net result of these activities is that people become identified with the programs, understand them, and spend their efforts and energy to make them succeed.

Similar activities are taking place at the state and national levels. In many states, councils on teacher education have been organized. Where effective, these councils have identified the pressing problems in teacher education and have arranged for the agencies and individuals holding the power to act to participate in the solution of these problems. Dramatic changes in certification laws and programs of state support have been secured in this manner.

At the national level the NEA Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards has made important moves to bring together all the powerful groups that have a direct interest in teacher education. This effort has strong supplementary support from the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education and the American Council on Education operating through its subsidiary Council on Cooperation in Teacher Education, as well as from various other organizations.

This tendency to involve greater segments of professional effort in teacher education constitutes a solid improvement in terms of the criteria mentioned earlier. It utilizes known psychological principles for securing motivation and facilitating change in teacher education. The varied backgrounds of the participants gear the programs more realistically to existing teaching situations. Clearly such programs are more democratic in conception.

As would be expected, problems arise in connection with the cooperative efforts that have been described. Two of these problems appear to warrant considerable attention if progress is to continue.

First, more thought must be given to an adequate administrative structure for facilitating group work in our educational programs. Far too often group responsibilities are not clearly defined and delimited. As a result, there is needless overlapping of committee work. In many instances the relationships between the groups forming policies and the regularly constituted administrative authorities are not clear. This may lead to misunderstandings in which the groups come to regard their work as futile or the administrators feel they are being subjected to undue pressure. There is need to distinguish clearly between the institution's organization for the formation of policy and the organization for putting it into effect. Every member of the institution should understand the channels through which he is to make his contributions concerning institutional policy.

A second problem is that of increasing the efficiency of group work. We excuse ourselves too easily by saying that group work is a slow and time-consuming proc-

ess. There is often too much truth in the radio quip that "a committee is a calling together of the incompetent by the unthinking to do the unnecessary." We must not have faculty members dissipating their energies in low-quality group work. There is great need to increase the efficiency of our ways of working together.

CURRICULUM IN TEACHER EDUCATION

Several lines of inquiry during recent years have produced many new curriculum patterns in teacher education. The most common have been to (1) study the program of general education for teachers, (2) search for the elements of the curriculum which should be common in the preparation of both elementary- and secondary-school teachers, (3) determine content and sequence in professional education, and (4) reconstruct the program as the length of the preparatory period is extended to five years.

It is difficult to generalize concerning the curricular arrangements that have arisen from a study of these problems. The Commission on Teacher Education, after much study and experience with curriculum revision, drew several conclusions which suggest something of the broad outline of desirable curricular patterns. A digest of the conclusions of the Commission which have particular relevance to the problem is as follows:

1. The length of the training period should be at least four years for all elementary- and secondary-school teachers. The trend toward five-year programs should be encouraged but not on a differential basis. If five years is to be required for secondary-school teaching, it should also be required for elementary-school teaching.

2. General education should make up approximately three-eighths of the student's total college program. It should be spread throughout the entire preservice period rather than concentrated in the first two years. Professional education should be allocated from one-eighth to one-sixth of the student's total college program.

3. Professional education should emphasize a study of child growth and development, the nature and problems of community and broader social existence, and should share the responsibility with general education for developing more expressive ability in the arts.

4. Courses in general and professional education should be scheduled with larger blocks of time.

5. special attention should be given to enabling students to study children, schools, and community at firsthand. The sequence of direct experiences should extend throughout the four- or five-year college program and should culminate in full-time student teaching near the close of the college course.

6. Many opportunities should be provided for students to engage in cooperative planning and evaluation of their own educational programs.

7. The entire program of teacher preparation, including extra-curricular experiences, should be designed to facilitate balanced growth of the prospective teacher as a whole person. Unity and continuity of the program should be sought.

8. Advanced subject-matter preparation should exhibit the highest standards of scholarship with more attention given to interrelationships between subjects and to practical implications for personal and social well-being.

Unfortunately, these conclusions indicate only the broad scope of desirable curriculum patterns. Validity will ultimately rest in the detailed curriculum arrangements which will give substance to these generalizations. The only large-scale agreement to date on the details has come from the report of the Subcommittee on Professional Laboratory Experiences of the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education. The Subcommittee Report (frequently referred to as the Flowers' Report) elaborated on the recommendations for more direct experience with children, schools, and communities. This report was used as a basis for one of the accrediting standards of the revamped American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education and is now in the process of implementation.

In addition to the curricular developments noted above, several institutions have made a large part of the program of general education, as well as several courses in professional education, common requirements for both elementary- and secondary-school teaching. Greater professional unity, a better understanding of the total public-school program, and ease of transition from one level to the other appear to be distinct advantages of this arrangement.

As is to be expected, these curricular developments have created some new problems and deemphasized some older ones.

First, the profession is becoming increasingly in need of performance standards to be attained by the student at the conclusion of each phase of his preparation for teaching. This has become more necessary as we break away from old, established curriculum patterns and as emphasis is placed on student participation in planning and evaluating the educational program.

One approach to this problem has been to develop more-or-less detailed lists of teacher competencies. A great many lists of this type have been produced by cooperative action of teacher educators during the past few years. It is difficult to determine the influence these statements have had on the evaluative processes within the teacher-preparing institutions.

A second need brought on by these curriculum trends is for a better theory of teaching which can be used to teach this same theory to our students. There is some evidence of a revolt in our profession against an intellectual approach in the preparation of teachers. This revolt is probably justified. We have been guilty, not only of presenting theory without providing opportunity for students to relate it to direct experiences in the school, but also of presenting theory that is inadequate to meet the realities of teaching situations. In our efforts to provide direct experience and permissive-learning situations for students, we may be easily led into the error of neglecting or seriously discounting the importance of theory. This would tend to reduce teacher preparation to a process closely akin to conditioning. This conditioning process can be very effective; however, it leaves the student at the mercy of any stronger conditioning forces which may later impinge upon him. For example, a student may be brought along to the point where he enjoys and can work effectively with the groups of children with whom he comes in contact under the direction of the college. In one of his early teaching positions, however, he may be placed in an environment which is viciously condemnatory to children. If he does not have the intellectual framework with which to analyze this situation, the environment will gradually recondition him

to accept the same condemnatory attitudes.

Those who are urging more direct experiences in teacher education state that the process of drawing consistent generalizations from direct experience must become an integral part of the experience. Moved on by the spirit of the revolt, however, and lacking adequate theory, we may seriously neglect the theoretical aspect of teacher preparation.

Many additional problems of the curriculum deserve thoughtful consideration. The discussion of the aspect of teacher education will be concluded, however, by pointing to the need to prepare students to work in situations involving conflicting value orientations. Since value conflicts are a pronounced characteristic of present-day society, teachers are needed who are particularly adept at handling them. It is to the credit of the profession that teachers have always been vocal in support of the basic values of our democratic society. For the most part a fairly good job is being done in inculcating these values in students. Reality must be faced, nevertheless, by recognizing that teachers who are vocal in defense of these values are being subjected to increasingly bitter attacks. Beginning teachers are likely to be especially vulnerable to attacks of this type. Their idealistic expostulations of democratic values often go far beyond their ability to perform. As a result they are ridiculed and often become disillusioned and bitter. To overcome this difficulty, the teacher needs to develop the ability to lead people to express democratic values and to reflect rationally upon them.

QUALITY CONTROL OF PERSONNEL

The third major area of improvement in teacher education relates to the problem of applying quality control to the personnel entering the profession. Action has taken place along four fronts.

1. Certification standards have made unprecedented gains. The number of states requiring a four-year minimum for certification has increased from 15 to 24 during the past five years. Plans for achieving this minimum are under way in a number of additional states. Two states have adopted five-year minimum standards and five others are contemplating changing to this standard.

2. Accrediting standards for institutions engaged in the education of teachers are becoming much more effective in upgrading the quality of preparation. Last summer at the Indiana Conference the first steps were taken to unite the teaching profession, the legal school authorities of the state, the teacher-education institutions, and the lay public in a program for developing adequate accrediting standards. These efforts have been coordinated with the work of the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education as well as the individual state-accrediting agencies. The standards that are being developed will provide a great stimulus to teacher education.

3. Many teacher-education institutions are introducing stronger programs of recruitment and selective retention. The general impression is that these programs have been more successful in recruiting good students than they have been in eliminating the unfit. Nevertheless, substantial progress is being made.

4. The studies of Teacher Supply and Demand in the United States have kept the profession up to date as to the areas of imbalance in the supply of teachers. Serious consideration is being given in some states to the allocation of quotas to the various teacher-education institutions. Such programs meet with many practical difficulties but may eventually eliminate that large body of professional scavengers who prepare to teach in case they can find nothing else to do.

Many problems arise from the attempt to apply quality control to the stream of young people entering the teaching profession. The most insistent is that of preparing enough properly qualified people to meet the demand for elementary teachers. Careful estimates indicate there will be a shortage of from 40,000 to 100,000 elementary-school teachers next fall. These estimates do not include the pending loss of personnel to the armed services and related defense production. Faced with a shortage of this magnitude, a desperate fight is being waged to maintain standards. The pressure to reduce standards is increasing. The message that Ralph McDonald has been presenting during the past year—the message that lower standards actually tend to decrease the supply of teachers—must be brought home. Young people will be attracted into elementary-school teaching only when they see it as a profession in which they can achieve a reasonably high status. High standards are one of the chief means for securing this status.

DEVELOPING PROFESSIONAL SPIRIT

The discussion so far has dealt with problems of group work, the curriculum, and quality control. It remains to conclude the analysis by a brief reference to the task of developing professional spirit among students during the preparatory period. To no small degree the success of a teacher-education program is ultimately dependent upon the accomplishment of this task. If the students who graduate are imbued with strong professional loyalties, they will continue to associate and learn from their fellow workers; if they are not imbued with this spirit, they are likely to reach a peak of performance within the first few years of teaching and from that point on become a dead weight, holding back against progress in the profession.

Various means have been tried to develop professional spirit among the student body. The most common has been to acquaint the students with the aims and accomplishments of the different professional organizations. As a rule this approach falls flat. It is a little like talking about an operation or a vacation trip. The story teller is the only person who develops any degree of enthusiasm.

Another approach has been to establish campus chapters of the various professional organizations. It is hoped the student will develop loyalty to the organization which will carry over into his later professional life. Too often, however, the officers and sponsors of these organizations are faced with a difficult struggle to maintain membership and attendance. It is hard to compete with the fraternal organizations, the basketball games, the dances, and other more vital activities of the students.

The most successful attempts to build professional spirit appear to result from giving the students a real function to perform in our professional activities. This is not as easy as it would appear. Basically it is the lack of a recognized social function for students that is at the root of many of our troubles in both secondary and higher education. Students are led to feel that there is a self-sufficient society out of school—a beneficent society, it is true—but a society which has no real need for them.

Human personality cannot flower into its full significance until the individual can achieve some degree of identification with the great ongoing tasks of our society. Not until the students can be given a function where they know they

meet some real needs of the profession should they be expected to show true professional spirit. In turn the profession will warrant this devotion as long as it continues to make service to our society its primary function.

Chapter 39. Improving Graduate Programs for Elementary and Secondary-School Teachers¹

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WHEN Thomas Jefferson wrote the first paragraph of the Declaration of Independence 175 years ago, he corrected it several times. He substituted more meaningful words for some of those he had used originally; he added a few words to some of the phrases; he deleted a few words from other phrases, and in some instances he crossed out an entire phrase. There was one phrase, however, that was not changed one iota from the way he first put it down on paper. This one short phrase was so much an integral part of the thinking of that great statesman and philosopher that it needed no alteration; it needed neither simplification nor embellishment. That statement is "... a decent respect to the opinions of mankind ..."

Whether we are aware of it or not, that idea has become the most powerful device in the American way of teaching and learning. From the time the child learns to hang up his coat the first day in the nursery school until the hood of the doctorate is hung around his mature shoulders, the discussion technique has been the fundamental principle in the learning procedure.

For the next three days at this annual National Conference on Higher Education, we will make use of the discussion technique and thereby enjoy the high privileges it permits; it is

hoped that at all times we will keep in mind the obligation of having "... a decent respect to the opinions of mankind ...". The observance of this obligation is the necessary balance for the right of free expression. This entire Conference has been set up with this idea in mind. This device affords each person present an equal opportunity to be on the team and to play in the game. As a matter of fact, each person has the opportunity to carry the ball. Indeed, each of you may be the quarterback; you may call your own signal to carry the ball as often as you wish, within the limits of good taste and modesty. Today, however, let us substitute ideas for footballs.

As I see the situation relating to graduate work today, it is not unlike the one Thomas Jefferson and his colleagues had many decades ago when a grave problem also confronted them. They had their choice, either to go along as usual under the pattern of operation as decreed by England and her Parliament, or to start from scratch; they could begin anew, establishing their own pattern which better fitted their conditions and times. Likewise, we may continue with the old graduate pattern of study under which we have operated for the past 200 years and which was designed originally not for colleges of education but for colleges of medicine, law, art, science, and religion, or we may, if we are as courageous as Washington, Franklin, Adams, Jefferson, and some other of our forebears, establish an entirely new pattern to fit our conditions and times. We, too, may well consider the writing of a declaration of independence from our traditional graduate programs.

¹ An address presented before Group 33 of the sixth annual National Conference on Higher Education, Chicago, Illinois, April 2, 1951. Chairman of the group was L. G. Townsend, University of Missouri; consultant was E. D. Grizzell, University of Pennsylvania; and recorder was J. W. Maucker, Iowa State Teachers College.

At this particular meeting may I suggest that we as educators assume the role of architects; we shall become designers of plans, creators of ideas. Like architects, who often find themselves with an old structure on their hands and the need for a better one for future use, we know there are three alternatives on which decisions must be made. First, shall we try to patch up the old structure and make it do until the time is more expedient? Second, shall we abandon the old structure entirely and design an entirely new and better one in keeping with the present and future situation? Third, shall we build a new structure, designed for present-day situations and future use, but using as much material as is possible and wise to use from the old structure?

Immediately there passes through our minds the famous old church resolution, so beloved of educators, of the congregation that incorporated these three items in their writ. First, they resolved to build a new church. Second, they resolved to build the new church out of the materials from the old church. Third, they resolved to use the old church until the new church was completed.

I do not repeat that episode as a new joke. No doubt all of you have heard it. I relate it as a possible real and workable solution to the problem before us. Seriously, I propose that we follow the ideas and sequence of the above resolution. I propose that we design a brand-new pattern, using as much material from the old pattern as is necessary and wise, and that we keep right on using the old pattern until the new one is finished. In this instance it is possible to do these three things. This is the very first time I have ever known education to have an advantage over the building profession, or any other profession or business, but that seems the case this time.

The first, foremost, and greatest principle in architecture is this: "Form follows function." Put another way, "Function determines form." For the best results, this principle should never be violated either by educational designers or building designers. Every important decision in designing a new pattern or a new curriculum should be measured, weighed, and tested by that philosophical

principle: "Function determines form."

In designing a new home the architect should know exactly what type of living is to go in it immediately and what it will be used for in the future. Is it to be designed for a normal young couple who expect babies in the due course of human events, for growing boys and girls in future years who will become young men and women in later years? Or is it to be designed for a young couple who see no need for future expansions except perhaps a spare room for grandma when she comes to live with them after grandpa dies? When the architect knows the function of the house, then he proceeds to house those functions, to create the form of the house.

Likewise, in designing a new school building the faculty, the supervisors, the principal, and even the community should determine the functions of their future school building. Then, knowing these functions, it is the architect's duty to create a form of building that will properly house them.

If the opposite situation prevails, if the members of a small family geared to modern ideas and conveniences find themselves with a big ramshackle mansion on their hands, then the architect is constantly inhibited in the redesigning of it. He is often forced to a position of trying to change the owners' desires to conform to the established, or at least a part of the established, form of the building. Likewise, if a small rickety old schoolhouse is to be redesigned and remodeled into a large modern school building, we know the very form of it will control the functions which will be performed in it in the years to come, regardless of whether these functions are good or bad. They are generally bad when form determines function.

The form which resulted from the old pattern of graduate study and which we now use is no longer adequate or desirable for the functions of a modern educational program which it should accommodate. If we are to conform to strict architectural procedure, we must resist the natural impulse to strike out boldly, to create offhand a new pattern, thus making a new form, and thereby determining functions to be performed in it that were never intended to be per-

formed and which are not desirable. We must first determine the functions of graduate study and then build the form. The traditional requirements for a master's degree no longer satisfactorily house the functions of the modern educational requirements for the well-trained elementary- or secondary-school teacher and principal. I do not wish to abandon the master's degree or the doctor's degree or any other fifth or sixth or seventh year of advanced work. I only wish to change the pattern and thus change the form of graduate work. It behooves us to examine the functions of a modern educational program for the elementary and secondary schools and then to design a pattern of graduate study that will accommodate these functions.

The following functions are suggested neither in order of their sequence or importance nor as a list presumed to be complete. If such were true, there would be little for us to do during the next three days.

What are the functions of a good graduate program for the elementary-school teacher? At a recent two-day meeting of some 40 or 50 principals from typical situations the following items were suggested by them as being very important:

Said one principal, "First, every teacher should possess a good balance between extensive background of useful knowledge and information and adequate courses in methods." He went on to say, "By an extensive background I mean that type of broad education that the general-education people are fostering. Not a spattering of courses in various fields. Such is not a sound program in general education. An adequate number of methods courses may mean several of a general nature and several of a specific nature—enough of each for the teacher to understand her duties not only in classes during the regular class hours, but for every minute of the school day, the time between classes, before school, and after school."

This principal maintained that the teacher from the liberal-arts college with her major and minors in some specific area and just enough methods courses to meet the legal requirements for a teaching certificate was a far cry from

a well-prepared teacher. By the same token, he argued that the teacher coming from the teachers college, who was very long on methods courses and with just enough of the content courses to meet the legal requirements, was also a far cry from a well-prepared teacher.

He concluded with a plea for a *balanced program between content and methods courses*.

Another principal stated with firm conviction, "Since most of our teachers are short either in one or the other of these categories, we must first determine what a balanced program is. Next, we must measure each teacher with some sort of yardstick to learn what his educational deficiencies are, and then we should correct those shortcomings in the graduate program."

The yardstick he proposed was an interesting but not a difficult measuring device. Adding up credits in various areas to locate certain deficiencies is not a significant measure. This new yardstick would locate deficiencies in all areas of education and in a new realm as well—the realm of what he called "total personality." Up to this time our yardsticks had been used to measure (1) content and (2) methods; now comes (3) "total personality." He quickly established quite a case for the desirability of eliminating deficiencies by correcting such things as defects in speech, annoying mannerisms, poor eyesight and hearing, and by placing a great amount of emphasis on improvement of personality. He said the function of graduate work is to *fill up the gaps in certain content areas and in methods courses and to correct physical defects*.

A third principal argued that a "good movie personality" was one thing, but a "good radio personality" was quite a different thing and that a "good teacher personality" was still a third thing. His strongest point was that those traits of a teacher personality could be examined, evaluated, modified, and corrected only in a teaching situation, and he made a terrific plea for courses in "advanced practice teaching" on the graduate level. The measurement should be done in a laboratory and/or experimental school; the improvement should be achieved in such a school or back on the job; re-testing should be done the next year in

the laboratory and/or experimental school. He argued that improvement in this third area might be more important and more valuable to the students and the school than extra courses in content material or additional courses in methods. To him, the function of graduate work was to *develop and improve a teacher personality*.

The next principal averred that courses should be given on the graduate level for the *responsibilities of the profession*, especially to those who had had actual teaching experience. His argument was developed not on a highly idealistic plane as we had anticipated but it was on a very simple, practical plane that went something like this: "I spent two days at the university interviewing, and selected four elementary-school teachers. That was four years ago when we had a large number of high-quality candidates for elementary positions. All four of the teachers I selected seemed well balanced in content and methodology; they had splendid recommendations from their critic teachers in their observation and practice-teaching courses. They seemed to have a good broad background of courses; they came from fine homes and each possessed a good personality. Let me tell you briefly about Miss Health and Physical Education. She was practically a straight 'A' student in college, and she had not ducked those more difficult courses—Anatomy and Physiology, Kinesiology, Physiology of Exercise, Tests and Measurements in Health Education, Research in Physical Education. Of course, she had all of the more elementary courses as well. She had served as director of summer camps for girls. She had a Red Cross certificate. She had been selected four or five times as 'Queen' of something or other. She had personality plus. She proved to be a splendid classroom teacher, but do you suppose we could get her out on the playground before school, at recess time, or noon, even on a nice day? She would lean against the hall radiator in the wintertime and she would lean against the shady side of the building in early fall and in the springtime, and do all of her supervision from those two vantage points. This, in spite of the fact that she had an 'A' in a course in playground supervision."

He then told us about Miss Music, who was equally capable in her college courses, as first violinist in the college orchestra and as a soloist with the college chorus. She also did a good job in the classroom but absolutely refused to sing or play at school-related performances; worse than that, she practically ruined every school program and the spring operetta by complaining, by grumbling, and by her half-hearted efforts during the extra practice sessions. She kept muttering, "If there is extra work to be done, why isn't there extra pay for it?"

Miss Art was then described as was Miss English. It was the same story with each of them. Why should Miss Art always be picked on to decorate the stage for the graduation exercise, for the exhibits during Good Schools Week; why did she have to be the chairman of the committee to purchase new drapes and pictures for the teachers' room on a budget that was far too small? Why could not the principal give New Miss English all of the literature and let Old Miss English teach all of the grammar? Who did the American Legion think they were to ask that an essay contest on good citizenship be conducted by her?

All four of these well-qualified teachers resented working on report cards, absentee blanks, hall duty, programs, and numerous nonteaching activities; they did not hesitate to let those facts be known, either. As classroom teachers they were excellent, but they just did not seem to realize that there was much more to teaching than that. The principal said if the graduate schools will only create a *good professional attitude*, that will be all he would ask of them.

These are just a few of the easier problems upon which the architect should meditate in building a curriculum for advanced-degree work. Here we have listed four suggestions for the functions of advanced-degree work. There are dozens of others. When we have them all listed, then we should arrange them into groups. These groups might become classes. These classes might become the curriculum. The curriculum representing function would determine the form of graduate work. The form becomes the pattern for the new master's

or doctor's degrees or for advanced study if the advanced degree is not the objective.

These are but a few of the decisions to be made by the educational architect, the curriculum builder, who is to design the plans for modern advanced-degree work. Just as the wise architect enlists the services of expert engineering consultants for specialized work, so should we enlist the services of the expert educators in specialized areas to help make the decisions on important questions.

Ours is a heroic task. We propose to build a tremendous and magnificent

structure. Our most honest efforts, our most honest appraisals, and an abiding faith in our ability to translate our ideas honestly to a blueprint will be taxed to the limit if we accept this responsibility.

Now may I conclude with the last words on the first page of Thomas Jefferson's original draft, "... let facts be submitted to a candid world, (for the truth of which we pledge a faith yet unsullied by falsehood)." In building a new graduate program we must be guided entirely by truth and less by tradition.

Chapter 40. Professional Laboratory Experiences in the Preparation of Elementary- and Secondary-School Teachers¹

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THE expression "professional laboratory experiences" is a relatively new name for a practice which is as old as organized society itself. When the practices and the rituals performed by a tribal leader were practiced by the youth selected to succeed the old chief, we have a very excellent example of a professional laboratory experience. The resemblance is particularly striking when the youth lived with the medicine man or chief and served as his assistant, more or less as an apprentice or intern. We live in a more highly organized society today, but by the same token we demand more training and higher competence in our professional workers.

Preparation for teaching in the modern sense is a relatively recent development. Normal schools were first established in America a little over 100 years ago. From their inception they put emphasis upon training through experience, or practice teaching for the elementary-school teacher. Student teaching, as we

call it today, for the prospective secondary-school teacher has been a development of this century. For the last two decades a credit course in student teaching has been a generally recognized requirement for all professional certification and for graduation from a teacher-education curriculum.

At this point it is only natural for the typical college-faculty member and, particularly, the college administrator to raise many questions. Any development such as this should be carefully studied; much research should be available to guide the development of this major aspect of teacher education. Of the many questions which might be asked, three have been selected for consideration here.

First, what standards have been set for a desirable program of professional laboratory experiences in teacher education? Second, why should teacher-education curricula include professional laboratory experiences? Third, how shall the standards for professional laboratory experiences in teacher education be implemented? The discussion of the last question will include emphasis both on a desirable pattern of experiences and on some principles to be used as guides in developing and administering professional laboratory experiences.

¹An address presented before Group 34 of the sixth annual National Conference on Higher Education, Chicago, Illinois, April 2, 1951. Chairman of the group was E. R. McCartney, Fort Hays Kansas State College; consultant was Emery W. Leamer, State Teachers College, LaCrosse, Wisconsin; and recorder was Walter O. Kraeft, Concordia Teachers College.

A STANDARD FOR PROGRAMS OF PROFESSIONAL LABORATORY EXPERIENCES

More than 25 years ago the then American Association of Teachers Colleges developed a standard governing student teaching. Expressed strictly in quantitative terms of hours and credits this standard served its purpose and brought some semblance of uniformity out of the chaos of unequal offerings and credit values. By 1940 it was clear that such a standard was outmoded because of the variety of new activities and experiences which had been added and the need for charting a direction for the future. A study committee was formed with the cooperation of the Association for Student Teaching, and after years of work the committee prepared an extensive report, *School and Community Laboratory Experiences in Teacher Education*.² From this report the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education has developed its new Standard VI which covers the whole area of professional laboratory experiences, and which was officially adopted by the Association in 1949.³

Something of the nature of these standards and their import for teacher-education programs can be gained from a few brief excerpts from the standards themselves.⁴ The two key definitions are as follows: "Professional laboratory experiences include all those contacts with children, youth, and adults, which make a direct contribution to an under-

standing of individuals and their guidance in the teaching-learning process. . . . Student teaching is a period of guided teaching when the student takes increasing responsibility for guiding the school experiences of a given group of learners over a period of consecutive weeks."

The standard is organized in six parts. The headings and the major emphasis of each are as follows:

1. *The Place of Laboratory Experiences in the College Curriculum.* Professional laboratory experiences should be an integral part of the work of each year of college.
2. *Nature of Professional Laboratory Experiences.* The professional program should be designed to afford opportunity for responsible participation in the major areas of the teacher's work.
3. *Assignment and Length of Laboratory Experiences.* Choice of laboratory situation and length of time spent there will vary with individuals. Each experience should be long enough to help the student achieve the purposes for which he entered upon it.
4. *Guidance of Professional Laboratory Experiences.* Guidance of professional laboratory experiences should be at all times in terms of basic educational principles. Guidance should demonstrate the principles recommended for use in working with children and youth.
5. *Guidance of Professional Laboratory Experiences as a Cooperative Responsibility.* The development of these experiences should be the joint responsibility of the person directly responsible in the laboratory situation and the college representative most closely associated with the student's activities in the laboratory situation.
6. *Facilities Needed to Implement the Program of Professional Laboratory Experiences.* There is need for laboratory facilities sufficiently extensive to provide for each student contact with normal situations, varied enough to provide contacts with different pupil groups and different curriculum and administrative organizations, and located for student convenience and accessibility.

The complete text of the standards contains an elaboration of the conditions which will exist when each of these six aspects has been implemented most fully.

REASONS FOR INCLUDING PROFESSIONAL LABORATORY EXPERIENCES

Radically new and different college courses have usually been approved with reluctance in most American higher

² Subcommittee of the Standards and Surveys Committee of the American Association of Teachers Colleges: John G. Flowers, Allen D. Patterson, Florence Stratemeyer, Margaret Lindsey. *School and Community Laboratory Experiences in Teacher Education*, 340 p. American Association of Teachers Colleges, 1948. (Now American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, Oneonta, New York.)

³ Subcommittee of the Committee on Standards and Studies: John G. Flowers, Florence Stratemeyer, Allen D. Patterson, Margaret Lindsey. *Recommended Standards Governing Professional Laboratory Experiences and Student Teaching and Evaluative Criteria*, 38 p. American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, Oneonta, New York, 1949.

⁴ Subcommittee of the Committee on Standards and Studies: John G. Flowers, Florence Stratemeyer, Allen D. Patterson, Margaret Lindsey, *Ibid*, p. 4, ff.

institutions, especially liberal-arts colleges. Courses in student teaching at the secondary-school level, for instance, were not fully accepted as credit for graduation in many colleges until such credit was required by most states for certification. Similarly, sharp differences exist in the way many professional laboratory experiences are recognized today. Throughout the country there are many experiences which seem to be required but which occupy a sort of no man's land between the curricular and extra-curricular.

This confusion could in part be resolved by a careful analysis of the place and function of professional laboratory experiences in teacher education. Unfortunately formal research has as yet contributed but little, compared to the subjective evidence piled up by the thousands of sincere professional workers who have supervised these experiences and watched college students grow both personally and professionally while engaged in these activities. From the many values which might be listed, three will be considered here: (1) professional purpose, (2) professional competence, and (3) professional guidance.

How does a college student acquire a *professional purpose*? How does one develop a true, social sensitivity on the part of a professional worker? A genuine social awareness, a sense of community responsibility, a true professional attitude certainly are *desiderata* for the teacher. Is it possible that these qualities can be developed more effectively through community experiences than in most other ways? Is there any other approach more likely of success than to provide a young person with an experience in which he identifies himself with a new social group—different from his accustomed face-to-face group—long enough to accept the purposes of the new group as his purposes, the needs of the group as his responsibility, and to have the emotional experience of playing a vital role in human betterment?

One phase of this problem can be easily documented. Students who have finished experiences of this kind display a keener interest in professional courses, a better understanding of the role they are preparing to fill in society, and are emphatic in saying that all students pre-

paring to teach should be given such experiences. It has been said that ideals and attitudes are generalizations of habits and experiences. If this be true, field experience is a most effective means of developing professional ideals, attitudes, and purposes.

One's concept of *professional competence* will differ from one's idea of the nature of a profession and of teaching in particular. If we accept the work of a professional man as *diagnosis, prognosis, and treatment* then *professional knowledge* alone seems scarcely sufficient. Certainly *professional judgment* and *professional skill* would then be needed, and their development clearly would require extensive practical experience under laboratory conditions.

The severe limitations of staff and budget in most colleges result in failure to provide adequate *professional guidance* for the prospective teacher. In addition the absence of assistance for most beginning teachers, including an almost complete lack of follow-up from the colleges for their own graduates, further points up the need for careful guidance and continuous evaluation of teacher trainees. Too often today this phase of personnel work is limited to educational guidance or course planning. A well-rounded program of professional laboratory experiences offers the student a chance to evaluate his own progress toward his vocational objective, as well as giving the college staff an opportunity to adapt requirements to individual differences and demonstrated growth. Techniques for accomplishing these results are still rather fragmentary, but even a hasty perusal of the 1949 yearbook of the Association for Student Teaching, *Evaluation of Student Teaching*, gives heartening assurance that progress can be made. The competence demonstrated in these experiences will give a basis both for better guidance and for judging a student's fitness for certification.

IMPLEMENTATION OF PROFESSIONAL LABORATORY EXPERIENCES

Today's teachers receive their education in a variety of colleges and universities. Certainly no one pattern or plan of professional laboratory experiences could possibly meet the needs of

all institutions. An indigenous plan, therefore, must be developed to fit each particular college, its curriculum, its locale, its resources, and the objectives its faculty has set. The different types of experience may be illustrated by reporting here a long-range plan prepared by the Field Experience Committee of the College of Education of The Ohio State University. It is not a record of achievement. Rather, it is a list of goals to be sought. Some of the nine parts are in operation, some are optional, others are required, some may never develop in this form at all. The plan is general enough so that many colleges offering a professional curriculum for teaching could adapt the emphases to their own requirements and local situation. These different experiences are discussed in much greater detail in the December, 1950, issue of *The Journal of Teacher Education*. They should be considered as only a suggested sequence of professional-field laboratory experiences, as follows:

1. *Evaluation of experiences* prior to entrance into the college and the preparation of a plan for further experiences for each individual student.

2. *Introduction of functional laboratory experiences as an integral part of professional courses* (and nonprofessional courses whenever possible).

3. *School exploratory experiences* of a general nature, including exploratory teaching, early in the professional sequence. This is to be provided either through a period of full-time assistance in a school while the University is not in session or through planned experiences as a part of regular courses, or both. The so-called September Field Experience program is available to students in this College, and those in the elementary curriculum all get an opportunity to sample teaching in a public-school classroom during their first course in elementary education.

4. *A community-service-agency experience* on a voluntary or course basis. Recognition is given for voluntary service in settlement houses, character-building agencies, summer camps, playgrounds, day nurseries, state and local institutions, and many other types of agencies.

5. *Increasingly responsible school experiences* as a functional part of advanced professional courses. Defined as participation these experiences range from passive observation to planned and substitute teaching. Appropriate as a concomitant of general and special-methods

courses, this type of experience brings many problems of adequate facilities, time schedules, and transportation. The vitalizing effect on student interest in professional courses is worth all it costs to provide the opportunities.

6. When necessary, the above experiences should be supplemented to insure an adequate background of knowledge and understanding of the principles of child growth and development. Theoretically this function should be well served by the general experiences. Practically it may not, and we may well have to wait for extensive research to get a useful answer.

7. *Full-time, responsible student teaching* for at least one quarter in a carefully selected public school. College students ask for more time for the practical experiences of student teaching. It is doubtful if any reasonable understanding of the major responsibilities of the teacher can be gained in less than one quarter or one-half of a semester of planned full-time experience in a school.

8. *Post-student-teaching observation and participation* experiences. This often most neglected phase of laboratory experiences could become a period of rich learning. By this time experience has built a foundation for keen observation and analysis of contrasting schools, curricula, and methods.

9. *A one-year, part-time, paid internship* as a part of an organized program for post-certification study and growth. Many sporadic attempts to develop internship have not yet succeeded to the point of establishing a trend in America comparable to that found in many other countries. The idea is sound and no suitable substitute has been developed to provide a similar amount of growth and to give an equal opportunity to determine real professional competence.

GUIDING PRINCIPLES FOR THE DEVELOPMENT AND ADMINISTRATION OF PROFESSIONAL LABORATORY EXPERIENCES

With practice as varied as it is today there are available to the college administrator very few well-established guide posts and principles. Standard VI of the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education gives some help here, and the report of the 1948 School for Executives of that Association includes a carefully formulated committee report on guiding principles. As a basis for the work sessions of this study group a brief list of suggested guides is given here to sharpen up the major issues to be faced in developing professional laboratory experiences for prospective teachers in American colleges:

1. The provision of adequate, local, laboratory facilities for field experience for prospective teachers is a *state function* and must be financed as a part of the total state system of public education. In the immediate future colleges and universities will have to bear an excessive burden of expense to provide good laboratory situations until such time as this principle can be fully implemented.

2. Colleges should work out *mutual assistance contracts with local schools and community agencies*. Such contracts must recognize the needs and purposes of all parties but should emphasize particularly the responsibilities which both types of institutions have for the development of well-qualified teachers.

3. Professional laboratory experiences should be included as an *integral part of the regular professional courses* whenever possible. Laboratory time schedules and laboratory credit allocations are essential to provide a balanced and adequate program of experience.

4. *Proper recognition both in time and credit* should be made for full-time assignments and related professional experiences. These activities must be held as essential by the faculty and given the recognition they deserve in college catalogs and curriculum descriptions.

5. The *supervision of field experiences is a joint responsibility* of the college faculty and the staff of the local schools and agencies. To be successful, proper recognition must be given to local supervisors, clear-cut allocations of function are necessary, in-service training must be provided, and all persons involved in both types of institutions must strive for a sympathetic understanding of the problems and needs of the other group. Colleges must allocate sufficient staff time to carry the major role in supervision until such time as local personnel

can be trained and given time to participate actively without a feeling of undue pressure.

6. The *best interests of the child and the laboratory group* must be paramount in any case. Whenever a program shows signs of serious deterioration because of the presence of teacher-education functions, the students should be removed until adequate safeguards can be approved by all concerned.

7. *Direct money compensation* to cooperating teachers and off-campus supervisors will not of itself provide adequate facilities. Recognition must be given to the responsibility which all members of the profession have for carrying their share of the teacher-education function. Assistance of all kinds to help local schools and agencies improve their programs should be the first consideration of contractual relations.

8. *An adequate staff and generous time allotments for guidance and supervisory duties* must be provided in all teacher-education institutions which expect continuous accreditation. A program to meet the needs of individual students would seem to call for these essentials: (a) careful evaluation of the student's background of experience, (b) faculty member who knows each student well enough to help him plan both his courses and his related professional laboratory experiences, and (c) faculty member who can work with the student in evaluating his growth and in modifying and carrying out his program.

9. Institutions should conduct *continuous research* on the local program and its operation. Extensive research projects covering the whole field of professional laboratory experience must be conceived, designed, and carried out so that future developments may have a sound scientific basis.

Chapter 41. Newer Teaching Aids and Materials¹

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ALTHOUGH there have been many new technological developments in photographic and electronic equipment and processes within the past decade, colleges and universities have been slow to utilize these developments in the in-

structional phase of their program. The newness of any audio-visual material is a relative matter. It is not the newness of a method or a material which insures widespread adoption, but the effectiveness with which it assists in the communication of ideas and the improvement of instruction.

Until recently, institutions of higher learning looked upon audio-visual materials, made possible by modern technology, as inconsequential toys or gadgets which had little or no implication for improving the caliber of in-

¹ An address presented before Group 35 of the sixth annual National Conference on Higher Education, Chicago, Illinois, April 2, 1951. Chairman of the group was Sherman A. Willson, Wayne University; consultant was Paul N. Zimmerer, Roosevelt College; and recorder was James F. Whelan, Loyola University, New Orleans, Louisiana.

struction. In fact, many institutions were only mildly concerned with the teaching ability of their instructional staff. This situation was vividly portrayed by a professor in an outstanding mid-Western university who said, "Until the administration of this institution will give me as much financial and academic recognition for doing an effective job of teaching as they do for writing articles and books, I can't waste my academic life improving the quality of my classroom instruction." Educators are becoming increasingly aware that, although research is a definite responsibility of institutions of higher learning, these institutions are committed to an instructional program of training citizens to meet the needs of a democratic society. In carrying out their instructional responsibility, colleges and universities have cast a critical eye on both the methods and materials.

There is now emerging a changing philosophy concerning the nature of effective classroom instruction at the college level and an acceptance of audio and visual materials with which to complement such instruction. It is a moot question as to whether or not technological developments or a changing educational philosophy have been the *cause* for this acceptance or the *effect* which has been brought about. In any discussion of newer teaching materials, however, this relationship cannot be overlooked. In considering this emerging philosophy, several factors to be noted are: (1) expanding knowledge of the psychology of learning; (2) increasing evidence of the effectiveness of audio-visual materials in the learning process; (3) developing techniques in the utilization of audio-visual materials to develop attitudes, knowledges, and skills; (4) changing attitude of students towards the type of instruction they receive; (5) increasing number of college teachers who have had successful experiences in vitalizing their instruction with improved techniques.

First, the literature in the field of educational psychology is constantly bringing to light the results of research studies which indicate how people learn. Many of our college instructors have considered these findings from a strictly academic point of view and have not

applied them to their own teaching procedures. A few educators, however, have attempted to close this academic lag between research and practice and are now using methods and materials which will insure learning and increase retention.

Second, within the past ten years there have been over a thousand studies conducted in the area of audio-visual materials. These studies have been conducted in numerous academic fields and the literature of the specific disciplines to which they were related. They have directed the attention of many subject-matter specialists to the implications of audio-visual materials for instruction in their own fields.

Third, utilizing the findings of research concerning the psychology of learning, retention, and methods of instruction, business, industry, and the armed forces have developed effective, simple techniques for rapid and efficient training of millions of their personnel. Schools, churches, and colleges observing the effectiveness of these programs, are accepting the most applicable techniques and developing additional ones for their own instructional purposes.

Fourth, there is a noticeable change in the attitude of students towards the type of instruction they are receiving in college classes. Many former G.I.'s were critical of the slow, verbose, and ineffective instructional methods of their professors. Other students, not having experience with military training, were also restless with the instruction they were receiving. These youths lived in a world of vivid communication with radio, television, motion pictures, photographic press releases, and all of the other audio and visual impacts which surround them. They felt that if their professors would utilize the media of mass communication in covering the ground in a more rapid, complete, and comprehensive way, they would have more time to uncover ground through reading and research.

Finally, there have been a few master teachers who are sensitive to the impact of their instruction on students. They have found that the quality of their instruction directly affects the thoroughness with which their students have mastered the subject-matter. By the sincerity with

which they have approached their teaching and the effectiveness with which they have utilized audio-visual materials, they have become mentors for their colleagues in improved instructional techniques.

These five factors have contributed immeasurably to a changing philosophy concerning the caliber of instruction in institutions of higher learning and have paved the way for more intensive study of materials with which to complement such instruction. Future development of the use of audio-visual materials in college teaching will depend upon the rate of acceleration of this changing philosophy and the willingness of the college administrators to make materials and equipment available to their faculty. From proving grounds like those just mentioned come the ideas for the adaptation of existing materials and the development of new materials to complement college instruction.

NEWER TEACHING AIDS AND MATERIALS

In considering the subject of newer teaching aids and materials, it is imperative to realize that none of these things has been created in a vacuum. All of them have been adapted or devised to meet specific instructional problems. Instructors who are seriously concerned with the improvement of their own classroom instruction must find adequate answers to the following vital questions:

(1) What are the basic educational problems in each unit of instruction? (2) What audio-visual materials or devices can be used to complement the instruction and meet the educational problem? (3) Are there any materials commercially available which could be adapted to meet the problem? (4) Will the material have to be locally produced? (5) What techniques should be utilized in presenting the material in class? (6) What steps should be taken to test the effectiveness of the material or technique?

By careful analysis of their own teaching problems, selection of media to meet them, careful planning of utilization techniques, and a method of evaluating the effectiveness of the presentation, college instructors can materially improve their teaching.

Case Study: I. Use of the Tachistoscope

A. Subject: Beginning music

Objective: To develop student ability to recognize rapidly and play notes, chords, and phrases

Problem: Beginning music students have difficulty in recognizing notes, chords, and phrases and coordinating their eyes with finger movement. This is primarily a reading problem. The eyes must be trained to increase their span of vision both horizontally and vertically as compared with the purely horizontal sweep of the eyes in normal reading.

Media: Commercially produced slide equipment and tachistoscope (flash meter); locally produced slide materials

Evaluation: Students trained by this method develop superior ability in note, chord, and phrase reading, and progress more rapidly with digital dexterity.

B. Subject: Reading

Objective: To increase the student's rate of reading

Problem: Many first-year college students have a slow rate of reading. If, through practice, the reading rate can be increased, it will materially assist them throughout their school life where so much attention is devoted to reading.

Media: Commercially produced slide equipment and tachistoscope (flash meter), commercially and locally produced slide material

Evaluation: The tachistoscope, although only one medium used to increase eye span, accelerate reading rate, and limit regression, was found effective in improving recognition and developing a wider axis of visual acuity. Accurate controls can be maintained by calibrated exposures and selection of materials.

C. *Summary:* This device is also being used for teaching shorthand and art.

Case Study: II. Models and Mock-ups

A. Subject: Beginning typing

Objective: To teach the operation of the typewriter and methods of changing typewriting ribbons

Problem: Instructing a class on the method of changing a typewriter ribbon usually took fifteen minutes for explanation and the remainder of class time in checking each student.

Media: Locally produced model of ribbon holders, 2½ feet high

Evaluation: With the use of large models, explanation time was shortened. Because of the clarity of the presentation, only a few students required assistance, sav-

ing over one-half the period for more advanced work.

B. Subject: Economics

Objective: To develop an understanding of the monetary system in the United States

Problem: Students have difficulty in understanding the monetary-exchange system and the relationship of the Federal Reserve Bank to local community banks. Evaluation of student examinations revealed a lack of clear understanding.

Media: Locally produced workboard 4' x 8', equipped with small accounting blackboards

Evaluation: The workboard proved to be an effective device for presentation of the monetary system. Subsequent use of the board as a testing device operated by students indicated that complete understanding had been achieved.

C. Subject: Geometry

Objective: To demonstrate the relationship of cubic area to the angles of a parabolic shape

Problem: Studies of paraboloids are difficult when viewed in textbook drawings. Students do not seem to grasp the third dimensional qualities of parabolic shapes.

Media: Locally produced model (commercially produced model too expensive)

Evaluation: With the use of the aluminum and string model, concepts were clarified in a fraction of the time formerly used for explanation.

D. Subject: Radio station operation

Objective: To train students in the operation of control panel

Problem: All students must know how to operate the radio-control panel. Space in the control room is limited to three people—an instructor and two students. Because of rehearsals and productions, little time was available for training. Students could not be adequately checked on the equipment.

Media: Working model—locally produced

Evaluation: Demonstrations of the operation of the control panel could be more effectively demonstrated with the model than with the actual equipment. An entire class could benefit from the demonstration, eliminating the necessity of a series of small group demonstrations. Students could be given problems to solve on the working model which eliminated costly, time-consuming errors on the actual equipment

Case Study: III. Playback and Recording Equipment

A. Subject: Foreign language

Objective: To improve the quality of conversational speech

Problem: The most serious criticism of foreign-language instruction is the inability of students to speak the language they are studying.

Media: Commercially produced turntables, earphones, recorders, and amplifiers adapted for individual or class use; commercial and locally produced records

Evaluation: Language-listening laboratories when required as supplementary practice periods improve substantially the quality of conversational speech of students. Individual students having difficulty with pronunciation improve considerably when they hear both their own speech and that of experts recorded and played back to them.

B. Subject: Humanities (music appreciation)

Objective: To develop a knowledge and appreciation of the construction and content of musical selections

Problems: Recorded musical selections played for study and analysis cannot be interrupted to allow for interpretation. Instructor's comments during the playing of the selection confuse the students and break the continuity of the composition. Other techniques, such as writing on the blackboard during the selection, caused a division of concentration.

Media: Commercially-produced equipment—called a "Phonoscope"—with accompanying stripfilm (This equipment allows for flexibility of use. Compositions can be played as verbal explanations are projected on a screen. Any specific section of the recording can be accurately found and played within records.)

Evaluation: The use of this equipment has allowed instructors, for the first time, to teach music appreciation effectively. Students are now making their own explanatory remarks for many different selections.

C. Subject: Speech

Objective: To develop the ability of students to conduct effective discussions

Problem: Discussions are extremely hard to analyze unless detailed notes are kept or unless recordings are made. Recordings usually have to be made in special rooms, and students are on guard during such recording periods.

Media: Tape recorder in adjoining room connected to a permanently suspended ceiling microphone; an external speaker also located in the speech classroom for playback purposes

Evaluation: The recorder being located in another room and turned on by the

instructor prior to class captures spontaneous, unrehearsed discussions and assists students to analyze discussion techniques and personal idiosyncrasies more effectively than any other technique. Instructors find this media also assists them in analyzing their own speech habits in a normal classroom presentation.

These case studies are but a few of the examples of how newer teaching aids and materials are being utilized for the improvement of college teaching.

By the use of commercially produced materials specifically directed toward particular instructional problems, by the adaptation of materials which can be effectively utilized to meet specific problems, and by the local production of audio and visual materials and devices, the faculties of the universities and colleges of this country will have a wealth of teaching tools to complement their instruction.

Our basic problem, then, resolves around the central issue of improving

instruction which might be said to involve a triangle of component parts. On one side is the administration which must provide the incentive and recognition for good instructors and the tools with which to accomplish such instruction. The other side of the triangle consists of the inventors and technicians who develop new devices and materials with which more effective teaching can be accomplished. The third side of the triangle is the teaching faculty who are charged with the responsibility of applying the findings of educational psychology and evaluating their own instructional techniques in developing the most effective methods of instruction to communicate their ideas. The loss of any of these sides of the triangle will seriously jeopardize the solution of our basic problem. It must always be remembered that the building of a strong bond between these three sides is a *process*, not an *event*.

Chapter 42. Appraising and Rewarding Teaching Effectiveness¹

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THE difficulty and even the undesirability of attempting to develop this topic is suggested by two quotations. Walter G. O'Donnell tells us, "Any differences of salary upon the basis of ability must await a more accurate and objective system of rating teachers on the basis of merit,"² while E. R. Guthrie reports, "The California Teachers Association has recently passed, with an overwhelming vote, a resolution against

the use of any merit rating in determining salaries." He adds, before we can take comfort in the fact that this Association is made up of elementary- and secondary-school teachers, "There can be no doubt that many college teachers will be found to share the majority opinion of the California school teachers that any system of merit evaluation is open to objections, some of them legitimate."³

In contrast with these statements is the opening sentence of the preliminary report of Group 21 of the NEA Department of Higher Education 1950 National Conference on Higher Education, "The evaluation of faculty services is inevitable."

Appraising teaching effectiveness—who shall, who can do it? A partial list would doubtlessly include (1) the teacher himself; (2) his present students; (3) his former students; (4) his colleagues, including (a) the department head and (b) the dean of the college.

¹ An address presented before Group 36 of the sixth annual National Conference on Higher Education, Chicago, Illinois, April 2, 1951. Chairman of the group was H. H. Remmers, Purdue University; consultant was The Reverend Edward J. Kammer, C.M., De Paul University; and recorder was Frank G. Schultz, South Dakota State College.

² O'Donnell, Walter G. "The Status of the Profession: Economic and Otherwise." *American Association of University Professors Bulletin* 33: 102-112; March, 1947.

³ Guthrie, E. R. "The Evaluation of Teaching." *The Educational Record* 30: 109-115; April, 1949.

A teacher should be asked a number of questions about himself, but there is one in particular which he is pre-eminently able to answer: Have the objectives of this course been achieved in and for your students?

Course objectives will be mentioned again later, but it should be emphasized here that the teacher can, better than anyone else, know the degree to which these objectives have been realized in each course. He has not only all the evidence of written tests, exercises, reports, and examinations which others can study, he has in addition the daily reactions, responses, and observations of the class on which to base a judgment. It seems fair to suggest, therefore, that he might well be asked the question, "In your classes how well have course objectives been attained?"

From the teacher it is natural to turn to the other element in the teaching-learning process—the student. Each of us knows one or several faculty members who see red at the mere mention of student ratings. Some of them feel that "the counting of infantile judgments leads to moronic conclusions to be used by imbecilic administrators." At the opposite pole is Luella Cole, whose considered judgment it is that "... the rating scale has come to stay"⁴ and further "... that students are the only people who can or should rate a teacher as far as his work in the classroom is concerned."⁵ Somewhat between these two positions is Lloyd Woodburne, who writes: "One method of evaluation . . . is student judgments of teaching. This is, of course, a method used extensively by some institutions, but one which is viewed with suspicion by a large pro-

portion of the teaching profession. Both the use of this method and the suspicion with which it is viewed are well founded."⁶

Obviously, there is not complete unanimity among the experts. A second conflict of opinions is emphasized when, on the one hand, Ruth E. Eckert tells us "... studies by Douglas, Morris, Detchen, and several others have shown that students' judgments are remarkably similar to those reached by more experienced persons,"⁷ while Mr. Guthrie asserts, "Student ratings of teachers do not agree closely with faculty ratings."⁸ He drives home his point with a correlation ratio, as he says: "Between student-rating scores and faculty-jury scores on teaching effectiveness, the correlation is .48. Since the agreement of student ratings with other student ratings (each being the average of 20) is of the order of .89, and faculty juries of seven agree with other juries of seven between .64 and .76, there is obviously a radical difference in the student evaluation of teaching and in the faculty evaluation."⁹

My experience agrees with Miss Eckert's statement. If that judgment should be vindicated by further experiments and observations, then it would be necessary to face squarely the question. Why go to the expense of time and money involved in gathering student ratings? Why indeed, unless perhaps there are values, other than the obvious one, in students and teachers having this experience—rating and being rated?

The recent book by Riley, Ryan, and Lifshitz, *The Student Looks at His Teacher*¹⁰ is a "must" for anyone interested in or concerned with student ratings of teachers. It is a detailed description and a complete interpretation of research in this field on the campus of Brooklyn College with funds provided by the Carnegie Corporation of New York.

It would be easy to allow appraisal by students to take up more than its share of allotted space. Avoiding that temptation, the discussion is closed with a sentence from Cole: "Rating scales, if properly used and sensibly interpreted, give information that cannot be obtained in any other way. They have their place in any plan for the evaluation or im-

⁴ Cole, Luella. *The Background for College Teaching*, p. 593. Farrar & Rinehart, Inc., New York, 1940.

⁵ Cole, Luella. *Ibid.*, p. 572.

⁶ Woodburne, Lloyd S. *Faculty Personnel Policies in Higher Education*, p. 28. Harper & Brothers, New York, 1950.

⁷ Eckert, Ruth E. "Ways of Evaluating College Teaching." *School and Society* 71: 65-69; February 4, 1950.

⁸ Guthrie, E. R. *Op. Cit.*, p. 113.

⁹ Guthrie, E. R. *Ibid.*

¹⁰ Riley, John W., Jr.; Ryan, Bryce F.; and Lifshitz, Marcia. *The Student Looks at His Teacher*. Rutgers University Press, New Brunswick, New Jersey, 1950.

provement of college teaching. Although a single student may be prejudiced in one way or another, the testimony of an entire group is both reliable and valid."¹¹

When, in evaluating teaching effectiveness, attention is turned from present students to former students or alumni, current discussion suggests relatively little interest. Miss Eckert, in the *School and Society* article previously cited, does not even mention alumni appraisal while Mr. Woodburne dismisses it with a few sentences: "Another source of information about teaching effectiveness is alumni opinion. This has been used extensively at only a few colleges or universities. In an unsystematic way, of course, every official receives alumni comment. One objection to its use is that the college almost never receives reports from the majority of a class after graduation. Further, the longer such reports wait after graduation, the more restricted is the memory of any alumnus."¹² It may well be that some foundation or individual institution could make an important contribution to the teaching profession by subsidizing a pilot study on this matter, for surely the long-range influence of a teacher is most meaningful when interpreting his teaching effectiveness.

Colleagues constantly evaluate a teacher but only on specific request and then usually with reluctance will they record their impressions in writing. This reluctance reflects in part the professional heritage which leads the professor to look with jealous eye upon the privacy and privileged position of his own classroom. Usually he will talk rather freely about another's research activity but what goes on in the other's classroom is definitely a different matter. As Gordon W. Allport puts it, "What goes on in the classroom is sacred ritual. It may not be pinioned for observation or assessment."¹³ This is not to deny that the relation between research and the

competence of a teacher is an interesting topic for lengthy discussion, but it does imply that teaching effectiveness can be judged apart from research contribution. Mr. Guthrie, with the reports by seven-man juries on several hundred University of Washington teachers before him, says categorically: "Between teaching effectiveness, which is judged with high consistency, and research contribution, which is judged with still higher consistency, there is no significant association. This was a matter of great surprise. Most college teachers believe that teaching and research contribute each to the other to an extent which should be evident in the correlation between the two."¹⁴

To return to the role of colleagues in the appraisal of a teacher's effectiveness, let us consider the source of evidence that should be used. Inescapably there is the grapevine with its fragile tendrils twisting in every passing breeze. There is, too, what I call the potato vine with its tumorlike tubers rapidly developing in well-fertilized soil. Say what we will, there they are—nor should there be pretense that they do not have considerable influence.

More wholesome and more useful is the evidence obtained by class visitations; the plural is used advisedly. Before, however, there is one visit by one person it is assumed that the faculty has voted its approval of the visitation principle. Such approval can be obtained as I know from experience, and visits to classrooms should be made within the framework of a faculty-approved plan. It is unlikely that, especially for younger teachers, the presence of a visitor in the classroom can ever be ignored. I shall never know how, as a young instructor at Wisconsin, I lived through the first unannounced visit by the then chairman of the mathematics department, Charles S. Slichter—he of the craggy forehead, the beetle brows, and the stentorian voice. Somehow I did survive and his second, third, and succeeding visits over the years became but as minor shocks compared to the "San Francisco fire" of the first visitation.

Of course, where it is feasible, the use of the one-way screen mitigates the impact of such visits tremendously. In *A Handbook for College Teachers* Mr.

¹¹ Cole, Luella. *Op. cit.*, p. 573.

¹² Woodburne, Lloyd S. *Op. cit.*, pp. 33-34.

¹³ Allport, Gordon W. "How Shall We Evaluate Teaching?" *A Handbook for College Teachers* edited by Bernice B. Cronkhite, p. 37. Harvard University Press, Cambridge, Massachusetts, 1950.

¹⁴ Guthrie, E. R. *Op. cit.*, p. 112.

Allport, in his chapter on "How To Evaluate Teaching," calls the one-way screen "an indispensable aid." Indispensable perhaps but something which most of us will somehow have to get along without when visiting or being visited in classrooms. The space required for the observation room, the cost of the screen and construction involved, plus the concealed microphones needed to carry the classroom sounds to the observers—all these make it unlikely that more than one, or even one, such room can be fitted upon the average campus.

Colleagues are especially aware of the interest a fellow teacher exhibits in the problems of teaching. Whether on formal committees or over a cup of coffee at the Union, the challenging phases of classroom procedures form the meat of many a stimulating conversation. And if *X* contributes his share on such occasions, it will be noted and reported when *X* is later appraised. If, further, his interest in the teaching situation leads to the presentation of papers or the publication of articles on one or several of its many facets—materials, methods, special aids—his campus neighbors will be well aware of such activity. The teaching effectiveness of former teachers is regularly judged by the teacher of each subsequent related course.

Counting the department head and dean of the college among the instructor's colleagues, they may well have normal access to some items not generally available. A list of such material includes: syllabi of courses, especially if developed or significantly modified by the person under consideration; comparative achievement of students in departmental examinations or other general exercises; the performance of students on pre- and post-course tests; use of library by students in courses for which this is an important part of the expected student activity.

Finally, for the appraisal part of the topic, too great emphasis can scarcely be laid upon the keeping and the keeping up to date of a file of the regular and systematic appraisals made of a given teacher. Whether such a file is maintained by the department chairman, the dean of the college, or even the president will be determined by local conditions, certainly including the size of the

institution and perhaps of the individual department. Where the record is kept is secondary to the importance of keeping it. The record should begin with the appointment papers, include such personal data as bears on academic competence, and all appraising statements (the teacher's own, students', colleagues', department chairman's, dean's) periodically made until continuing tenure has been achieved. From that time on perhaps only the occasional item of special significance need be kept until a promotion in rank looms as a possibility within two or three years. Then again data should be assembled periodically, certainly no less than once a year. Only thus can decisions crucial to the instructor and to his college be made on bases comprehensively planned and carefully assembled, though admittedly by no means perfect.

With the use of the several devices and procedures outlined thus far, and many others which clever and conscientious administrators will know about or invent, let it be assumed that the teaching effectiveness of Professor *Y* has been appraised and found to be superior. That being true, it is desired to reward him. In my thinking, for 90 per cent of the members of most college faculties, teaching is definitely the most important of the four services usually considered in judging an instructor's total contribution to the institution. These services are in order of importance: teaching, scholarly production, administration, and community service or public relations. What rewards are appropriate for and will be most appreciated by the teacher? The Bible tells us that the reward for doing an assigned task well is an increased assignment of the same sort. In view of the constant discussion within college faculties about teaching loads, however, it might not be appreciated if the good teacher were invited to take an additional three-hour course for the next semester and thus increase the number of students who profit by his excellence.

In a recent motion picture, while the question of a suitable reward for a brave deed was being discussed, one of the characters remarked, "They have stopped printing money?" Certainly when salaries for a college faculty are being

assigned, teaching effectiveness should be the primary consideration unless a staff member has been employed with the understanding that his main contribution will be along some other line. The framework of a college's salary structure should explicitly recognize success as a teacher as one of the criteria, perhaps the criterion, for achieving the maximum salary within the several ranks.

Ranks—ah yes, there are such things and they likely will continue at least into the foreseeable future. A proper and appreciated reward for the instructor, who has shown marked ability in the teaching assignments given to him, is promotion to an assistant professorship after evidence has accumulated that he will continue the same standard in the work entrusted to those in the higher rank. A promotion in rank is not only a reward for past achievement but even more so an expression of confidence that the good work will continue and develop. For that confidence there should be not merely a pious hope but in addition concrete evidence. It is true that no one-two-three relationship exists between courses taught and the rank of the teacher. In few places, however, do instructors offer senior or graduate courses though fortunately in many schools professors do continue to contribute to the freshman and sophomore programs.

Continuing or permanent tenure is another reward which a good teacher may anticipate fairly. If teaching is a man's main assignment, what better recommendation could there be to add him to the established community than success as a teacher? As with promotion in rank, the granting of continuing tenure will be safeguarded by other considerations, but for the teacher, teaching effectiveness will be a major consideration.

The rewards thus far mentioned—salary, rank, tenure—are personal for

the teacher. There are other rewards which the really devoted and successful teacher will greatly appreciate. They have to do with the conditions and facilities for his classroom activities. Does he want a rearrangement of his lecture room, recitation room, or laboratory? Let him have it if the budget can possibly be stretched or squeezed to produce it. Does he ask for the opportunity to try new approaches to or arrangements of topics? Give him a blessing and wait eagerly for his reports. Is it new or different equipment he desires? Procure it! In other words, fulfill with special zeal for this chosen one the chief function of an administrator—to make it easy for good teaching to take place. Do these things and great should be your satisfaction.

To round out, though by no means to complete, this brief treatment of possible rewards for good teaching, several other suggestions occasionally made are merely listed. The exchange of professors of comparable teaching reputations is a means of allowing each of two institutions to see another good man in action. The selection by staff or students or both, each year or once in every five years, of the outstanding teacher in a college has been proposed. This is usually coupled with the award of a medal, a sum of money, or perhaps the recording of the name on a plaque displayed in a properly conspicuous place on the campus. The possible "politicking" into which even good men or their friends might be tempted where such a tradition prevails cannot lightly be disregarded. Perhaps there should be a national or local organization with its members elected on the basis of demonstrated and established teaching effectiveness. Are any of these—exchanges, medals, keys for the watch chain—significantly important as a reward for the teacher who has really achieved?

Chapter 43. Improving the Selection, Education, and Professional Growth of College Teachers¹

FRED J. KELLY

United States Office of Education

THE topic on which you have been assembled to confer may seem to some of you a little threadbare. In addition to many other conferences, such as the series at Oklahoma Agricultural and Mechanical College and the recent one at Ball State Teachers College, the American Council on Education and the United States Office of Education have recently sponsored two large conferences on this subject, one in December, 1949, dealing with the preparation of college teachers, the other in December, 1950, dealing with the improvement of instruction by college teachers now in service. The report of the first conference appeared in a monograph entitled, "The Preparation of College Teachers," published by the American Council on Education. The report of the second conference is to be published shortly in a companion monograph. These monographs contain the essential facts and opinions of more than 200 college and graduate-school leaders, bearing upon precisely the questions you are assembled to study. You will, therefore, have much recent material to draw upon while you consider the questions suggested by the Planning Committee.

I was first tempted to quote liberally from these monographs in presenting my paper at the opening of your deliberations. On further thought, I concluded that probably many of you already would be familiar with the work of the two conferences mentioned above. Then, too, I have come to believe that participants in conferences will accomplish most if they seek ways through which they may help their several institutions to find answers to the questions raised. It does not do much good to return to your

campuses with answers, even if correct answers, to the sorts of questions—and good questions they are—posed by the Planning Committee. Each faculty group prefers and needs to find its own answers. You as a Conference participant can be of greatest service if you can help your colleagues develop the best procedures with which to find the answers.

I shall therefore direct my brief remarks to the question of how to develop methods of improvement on your campuses. When the proceedings of this Conference are printed, suggestions as to how faculties may proceed to implement your findings may prove helpful as a supplement to the report of your recorder. It is not possible to cover the entire field of selection, education, and professional growth of college teachers. Instead, I shall use a few illustrative questions which will permit me to make the suggestions I have in mind.

Question 1. How can the superior teacher be identified? This is very different from asking what personal and professional qualifications a college teacher should possess. I could cite scores of carefully phrased and itemized descriptive accounts of the qualifications of the good teacher. It is said that the good teacher must have: "intellectual capacity, deep interest in students, wide interests outside his profession, personal traits such as enthusiasm, integrity, fairness, and sympathy, the sense of being articulate and tending to business, and knowledge of the subject he teaches." Probably no one would quarrel with this characterization. We might add other things, but we would probably subtract nothing.

We are in general agreement about what makes a good teacher. Your faculty will likewise agree. But what of it? Is Professor Jones a good teacher? How do you know? The faculty wishes to see good teaching rewarded. Let us assume

¹ An address presented before Group 37 of the sixth annual National Conference on Higher Education, Chicago, Illinois, April 2, 1951. Chairman of the group was Ruth E. Eckert, University of Minnesota; consultant was William E. Alderman, Miami University; and recorder was J. St. Clair Price, Howard University.

that the administration does, too. Why, then, is merit not rewarded when there is such general agreement upon what qualities a good teacher possesses?

Let us consider how the faculty should go about identifying the good teacher. This will be the first step in developing other teachers like the one identified. Let me mention a few possible devices you might try:

a. Let the faculty make up a self-evaluating sheet by which each teacher marks himself. This is primarily a device for creating awareness of the things teachers should know about in their own teaching.

b. With the aid of the most thoughtful students, prepare a rating scale for students to evaluate their teachers. Such rating scales probably should be used on a voluntary basis, and the reports should be given only to the teacher concerned until faculty members indicate agreement upon other uses. This device is primarily for creating awareness of the qualities of a good teacher; it also uncovers strong and weak points of the teacher as indicated by the opinions of his students.

c. Having done the above two things, the faculty should soon be ready for a more significant step, namely, to measure the tangible outcomes of teaching. This involves the preparation of examination questions. The Educational Testing Service might be used for some types of tests. Cooperation with neighboring institutions with similar programs might be established.

d. A research and experimental program might be instituted by a faculty committee to investigate the relative effectiveness of the different procedures advocated and used by different teachers.

e. Faculty members, individually or in committees, might be chosen by the whole faculty to evaluate the work of teachers, perhaps a different committee for each teacher, and thus help to identify the teachers of merit. This evaluation might have many facets, but would probably include class visitation and the examination of student-rating sheets. If administrative action—promotion, for example—is contemplated, the administration should participate in this effort at evaluation. It should, however, be primarily a faculty enterprise.

Question 2. How can the graduate faculty be led to strengthen its program for the preparation of college teachers?

This question has many aspects. How may the faculty be led to agree that college teaching is a profession for which special preparation is required? What steps can be taken to bring about needed changes in the Ph.D. requirements? How

can professional courses in higher education be made a part of the work for prospective college teachers? How can effective apprentice teaching be carried on?

No argument should be needed to convince anyone that college teaching is a profession. The vastly complicated processes of teaching, the essential part played by motivation in learning, the teacher's need to understand the variation among students—these are but three among scores of problems confronted by teachers. No teacher can just fall heir to the answers to these questions. They must learn them, either by study or by experience, or both. Yet graduate schools are still in many cases unwilling to admit that they should vary their programs from the customary Ph.D. pattern. What can be done? Some appropriate steps are:

a. Bring about closer relations between the undergraduate college faculties and the graduate-school faculties. A graduate-school department head in a state university told an inquiring college president a few weeks ago that he was not interested in helping that president get a biological science instructor. He would be glad to help if the college wanted a man specially trained in any one of the four principal areas of biological science. I am sure the department head would not continue to hold this view if he had close contact with college biology teachers. If the problems of undergraduate college teaching—especially in the area of general education—were talked over in face-to-face conferences between the college and graduate faculty members, such questions as this would emerge: Do not many college students need a brief general course in biological science? Where are college teachers of such courses to be trained? Since many colleges are small, must not one teacher in such a college be prepared to teach all phases of biological science? Where are such teachers to come from? Such questions and discussions should help graduate departments to see their part in the maintenance of effective college teaching.

b. Encourage graduate faculty members to observe undergraduate instructors who use differing procedures in teaching. Many times professors just do not think of any other aspect of teaching than telling; of any other aspect of learning than remembering. If they can be led to observe some kinds of teaching that employ intellectual challenge, stimulate curiosity, heighten motivation, adjust to individual student differences, they will then understand what is meant by methods of teaching.

c. Stimulate undergraduate college teachers and graduate-teaching assistants to use student-rating sheets in their classes. With the names of the teachers omitted, have the graduate-school professors examine the returns made for teachers they had trained in previous years, or for the teaching assistants they are now training.

d. Get the graduate fellows and part-time teaching assistants (limited to those who expect to teach) to organize an informal discussion group for consideration of the problems they are meeting in their teaching. Possibly they will undertake to write a statement for the graduate faculty that will help the latter to realize the need for change in the Ph.D. requirements.

e. Have the graduate-school faculty appoint committees to study such questions as: how to broaden the Ph.D. curriculum; how to make the thesis not only an exercise in research techniques but also a genuine aid to the prospective teacher; how to incorporate the essential course or courses in higher education; how to carry on really effective apprentice teaching. If such committees sincerely study these problems, improvements will come about.

Let us not forget that graduate faculty members are honest in their convictions. They believe sincerely in what they are doing. They think the criticisms of their program are coming mainly from "educationists," and they are afraid of the softening influence of the "educationist." Do not forget, either, that their fears are not without some foundation. We "educationists" have not yet earned their complete confidence.

Question 3. How shall the student-rating sheet, or opinionnaire, be introduced and used?

Fortunately two studies have lately been made of student-rating practices. The first is *The Student Looks at His Teacher*.² These three Rutgers faculty members have analyzed with care and discernment the problems and implications of student ratings of college teachers. They had the results of the carefully planned use of student ratings in Brooklyn College as a springboard, but their discussion goes much beyond that experiment. It offers suggestions for the effective use of such ratings and defines the limits of their proper use.

The other study, only a summary of which has yet been published, is a dis-

sertation written by Francis J. Mueller at The Johns Hopkins University. This study is based on experiences reported by more than 300 colleges which have used some form of student ratings. It should help any college wishing to devise and use student ratings.

A joint faculty and student committee should be named to consider the question of student ratings. These are among the questions the committee will have to answer:

a. What qualities of the teacher are students competent to judge and evaluate? (See that the opinionnaire is limited to those qualities.)

b. What are the purposes the opinionnaire is designed to accomplish?

c. Should all classes of students, or only the maturer ones, use the opinionnaire?

d. Should the use of the opinionnaire be limited to those teachers who request it?

e. Should the results be made available to administrative officers, to a faculty committee, or only to the teacher rated?

f. How frequently should the opinionnaire be used?

The answers to all these questions will differ from institution to institution, depending upon the purpose to be served. The committee charged with considering the use of the opinionnaire should canvass critically the question, "For what purpose?" Remember that where adverse criticisms have followed the use of the student rating, the reason usually has been that the faculty did not approve it. Many times it did not serve a well-understood purpose. When the committee has arrived at the tentative answers to the six questions asked above, their proposal should go before the faculty for full discussion and final approval.

Question 4. How can college teachers be led to put greater reliance upon the more objective evaluations of student achievement?

All will agree that if it were possible to obtain a full and fair measure of student progress, no other test of teaching effectiveness would be needed, but such full and fair measure is not possible. How much of a measure of student progress is possible?

Here we encounter the righteous wrath of those who claim that the biggest outcome of teaching is a long list of intangibles which cannot be measured.

² Riley, John W.; Ryan, Bruce F.; and Lifshitz, Marcia. *The Student Looks at His Teacher*. Rutgers University Press, New Brunswick, New Jersey, 1950.

Let us agree at the outset that there are certain outcomes that we do not know how to measure. Perhaps we never shall know. Let us agree, too, that we do not want any scheme of evaluation to militate against achieving these intangible outcomes. There is danger of such a result. I remember when I ceased to advocate the use of objective tests in elementary-school spelling, arithmetic, and reading because these tests were tending to center the teachers' efforts on memorization in preparation for the tests. Good teaching was being spoiled. Bad use of evaluation techniques in college can do the same thing.

There are, however, legitimate uses—many more than we yet observe—of reliable techniques of evaluation. Indeed, there is no other approach to the problem of improvement of college teaching so likely to bear rich fruit as is the effort of the faculty to evaluate the outcomes of instruction by devices which have earned the confidence of the whole faculty.

Assuming a widespread faculty interest in self-improvement, how can a college dean or president or faculty committee on instruction get the faculty to develop the best evaluative procedures? Here are some suggestions:

a. If no one on the faculty is familiar with the general field of tests, encourage some interested member to prepare himself in this area of service. Possibly a specialist in tests might be invited to spend a few days on the campus.

b. Perhaps some other member of the faculty would be willing to gather information about

the workings of evaluation centers, such as the one at Syracuse University, of university examiners, such as that body at the University of Chicago, of university research centers, such as the one at The Ohio State University or the University of Minnesota.

c. Perhaps some other individual or a committee would encourage cooperation with neighboring colleges with similar programs. Perhaps the same examinations could be used, and the results compared.

d. Teachers of sections of the same course might well join in developing common tests, and in comparing outcomes.

e. All of these activities might be organized as a part of an experimental or research program in the institution.

Such approaches as the above have as their primary purpose the stimulation of interest in a more objective evaluation of the outcomes of instruction. When such interest is aroused, questions will naturally follow as to the differences among students, among classes, and among colleges, both at the beginning and at the end of the term. The use of intelligence tests, personality tests, and placement tests will reveal these differences. Instruction will then take on the quality of adaptation to the individuals being instructed. This will tend to switch the center of the teacher's interest to the problems of the learners and away from the subject as an end in itself. The college will tend to shift its emphasis from a place where teachers teach to a place where students learn. Teachers will then want to be judged by what the students do rather than by what they, the teachers, do.

Charting the Course

*for American Higher Education
in A Period of Partial Mobilization*

A Companion Volume to
CURRENT ISSUES IN HIGHER EDUCATION, 1951

DEPARTMENT OF HIGHER EDUCATION
NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION OF THE UNITED STATES



CHARTING THE COURSE
for
AMERICAN HIGHER EDUCATION

In a Period of Partial Mobilization

REPORTS OF THE STUDY GROUPS
IN THE
SIXTH ANNUAL NATIONAL CONFERENCE
ON HIGHER EDUCATION

APRIL 2, 3, 4, 1951, CHICAGO, ILLINOIS

A Department of Higher Education Publication

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FOREWORD

To college faculties, seasoned in the meeting of crises during the decade since Pearl Harbor, 1951 has brought new problems as well as new complications of many chronic problems in American higher education. Mercurial world conditions, indecision at the national level, uncertainty in the plans of students—all seemingly beyond the reach of existing human controls—have combined to create a confusing outlook for higher education.

For six consecutive years representatives of faculties in American higher education have come together in the National Conference on Higher Education to share experience concerning their common problems and to develop collective plans for meeting those problems. Participating in the 1951 National Conference were approximately 1,000 administrators and faculty members from institutions enrolling almost two-thirds of the college population of the United States.

The National Conference on Higher Education is the largest and most representative gathering of American higher-education leaders in the course of the year. It is the one occasion during the year when representatives of all higher-education fields, all disciplines, all professional categories, and all types of accredited institutions throughout the nation meet to consider current issues in higher education. It has thus become the cooperative annual planning session for American higher education.

This publication presents the recorders' reports of the study groups in the sixth annual National Conference on Higher Education, held in Chicago, Illinois, April 2-4, 1951, dealing with critical problems faced by college-and-university faculties in 1951. A companion volume, *Current Issues in Higher Education, 1951*, sets forth the texts of the major addresses presented before the Conference. Since the recorders' reports constitute a much shorter publication, requiring less time for editing and printing, an earlier distribution of this volume is possible. The companion volume is expected to be available for distribution in September, 1951.

The Department of Higher Education presents this publication in the belief that the cooperative findings of representative leaders in higher education may be helpful to administrators and faculties throughout the nation as they plan their several programs for 1951-1952 and the years ahead.

R. W. McD.

1201 Sixteenth Street, Northwest
Washington, D. C.
May 8, 1951

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REPORT OF GROUP 1A

Maintaining the Necessary Flow of College-Trained Personnel for Long-Range National Security¹

CHARLES E. ATKINSON
Kent State University

THE professional and technical training of men and women by the colleges and universities of our country has been in direct proportion to the progress and development of our civilization. The contribution made by college-trained personnel has enriched the lives of all the people. By the same token, all the people can suffer if provisions are not made to maintain the necessary flow of college-trained personnel for long-range national security. All areas of study and training are of vital concern to the national security. It is true that meeting the present demand for trained scientists and engineers is important in the development of our military machines and industries, and it is equally true that large numbers of men and women are needed in the field of public health and healing arts; but it is just as important that we maintain an adequate supply of trained personnel in the humanities, social sciences, the teaching profession, and other forms of public service.

In times of national emergency great emphasis is placed on the sciences and

healing arts. Consequently, liberal deferments are granted to students specializing in these fields, and in many cases financial assistance attracts a large percentage of those students with high intellectual ability. This causes grave concern to teachers and leaders in other subject-matter fields.

It is important to the national interest that a continuing assessment be made of the nation's requirements for college-trained personnel. This assessment should cover both civilian and military requirements and should embrace all fields of learning—not only of those most directly related to the national defense, such as engineering, the natural sciences and the healing arts, but also the humanities, social sciences, and other professional and administrative occupations. Study should be made also of the expected supply of college-trained personnel and of the extent to which the anticipated needs can be met by the increased employment of women.

To provide such information, the research in personnel requirements and anticipated supply now being conducted by the Bureau of Labor Statistics, Public Health Service, professional societies, and other organizations should be extended and coordinated, so as to yield an integrated, over-all estimate of the needed flow of college-trained personnel. The results of these studies should be made available for use in long-range educational planning, in

¹ Two independent, parallel groups considered this topic. The report here presented is based on the findings of Group 1A of the Conference. Analyst was M. H. Trytten, National Research Council; chairman was C. E. Deakins, Illinois Institute of Technology; consultant was Helen Wood, United States Department of Labor; consultant on public relations was Marvin W. Topping, American College Public Relations Association.

further determinations of deferment policies, and in advisement and guidance of students.

Deferment of college students. One of the greatest assets which our nation has in its struggle against Communism is our technical know-how. We are greatly outnumbered in manpower. To maintain our superiority in the technical knowledge which operates and creates our military machinery and industries, colleges must continue to produce a continuous flow of highly trained personnel. The plan to defer college students is designed to furnish a flow of highly trained men for the continuation of our technical superiority.

The draft-deferment policy, which provides for the deferment of students enrolled in colleges on the basis of tests or scholarship, may create in the minds of the general public the impression that there are certain inequalities of sacrifice. This may be due to a lack of complete understanding of the reasons for these deferments. To counteract this wave of public opinion a public-relations program must be undertaken. Assuming that a well-informed public will appreciate the importance of maintaining an essential flow of trained personnel for the security of the nation, the following three items should be stressed at the local and national levels: (1) The student-deferment plan is one of national interest designed to maintain a steady flow of trained personnel for national security, and not promoted by educators to keep their colleges open; (2) it is a long-range program, essential for the maintenance of our way of life and civilization; (3) it does not grant to the student total exemption. Each will be subject to military service at the end of his college training, regardless of age. The student's rights should be protected; he should be permitted to select his field of study, and his choice must be of his own determination. Furthermore, a program of national scholarships or student aid is recommended, so that individuals with high intelligence who might not otherwise attend college or who could do so only with great difficulty would receive assistance. The principle of free choice should be extended through the graduate school as well as into other areas of study.

Utilization of human resources. The employment of women and the encouragement of women to extend their base of study

into additional fields are recommended. This is imperative if we are to make the most effective use of human resources. Steps should be taken to break down the prejudice which has been set up against the utilization of women in some fields of work. The recruitment of women should be encouraged in the sciences and healing arts and other professions.

Colleges and industries are now feeling the effect of the lack of vision in the training of personnel during World War II. There is a need for science and research personnel who have had from five to ten years of experience. They cannot be found. This represents a serious gap in our present manpower supply. Great effort should be made to see that such a mistake is not made in the present crisis.

Serious concern was expressed with respect to the number of college teachers who have been hired away or loaned to government and industry for short-term jobs. How many of these will return to the teaching profession is not known. If they do not return, the students will suffer a real loss. The financial problem is of great concern to many of our colleges. Some institutions may be forced to reduce their staffs and salaries. Whatever system is followed, the disruption of the faculty and driving young scholars out of the teaching profession will have a tremendous effect on the educational system.

Group 1A adopted the following resolution:

WHEREAS, the membership of Section 1A of the sixth annual National Conference on Higher Education recognizes that because of inadequate financial resources many young men of high intelligence are unable to continue their formal education beyond high school, and

WHEREAS, it is believed that this lack of opportunity is not in the best interests of our society, especially in consideration of present demands for maintaining the necessary flow of college-trained personnel in the present emergency and for long-range national security,

BE IT RESOLVED: That this group favor a national scholarship or student-aid program so that men with high intelligence may be provided with opportunities for higher education now denied many of the nation's most capable high-school graduates.

REPORT OF GROUP 1B

Maintaining the Necessary Flow of College-Trained Personnel for Long-Range National Security¹

LACEY A. EASTBURN

Arizona State College

IN order to provide a continuous flow of necessary college-trained personnel into industry, business, and the professions, as well as into the military forces, it is imperative that some means be adopted by which potential leaders may be identified, selected, and given the opportunity to take advantage of college training. This is necessary in order that they may discharge more efficiently the responsibilities which will fall upon them either in the production of material or in military activities, as well as in the industrial, business, and professional pursuits now and later when the present emergency no longer exists.

The Trytten recommendation approved by executive order on March 31, 1951, is hereby endorsed as the best available means of selecting potential leaders for advanced training in those fields of learning deemed necessary for our preservation. Since it is impossible to predict in just what field of learning the nation's needs may fall either now or later, it seems wise not to delimit the fields in which advanced learning may be pursued. It does seem wise, however, to study the nation's needs in order that these may be supplied. To that end the following resolution is submitted:

WHEREAS, it is recognized that a fuller understanding of the importance of higher education is essential to the effective defense and welfare of our nation, and

WHEREAS, it is deemed that the dissemination of pertinent information of this nature is best effected at the local community level,

BE IT THEREFORE RESOLVED: That the central office of the NEA Department of Higher Education assume the responsibility for collecting, analyzing, and distributing to its members current informa-

tion on the nation's need for college- and-university-educated people.

That there will be grave disappointment on the part of some students (as well as their parents) who are not selected for deferment of their military service until after they have completed their college course goes without saying. This will be true even though those selected for deferment must later serve their period in the military forces.

It must be remembered and thoroughly understood by all the people of the nation that this deferment program was established and adopted entirely as a means of increasing the strength and furthering the welfare of the nation. If we fail to develop skilled leaders in all the essential fields, we will be jeopardizing our chances of self-preservation.

The institutions of higher education cannot do the whole job of educating the public as to the reasons and needs of this deferment program, though they must do their part. The educating of the public to accept this program is a responsibility of many organizations. Therefore, the following resolution is offered:

WHEREAS, employers of college graduates are of necessity vitally interested in the continuous flow of educationally qualified personnel,

BE IT THEREFORE RESOLVED: That the central office of the NEA Department of Higher Education undertake the responsibility of interesting various appropriate national organizations in the furthering of an understanding of the nation's need for college graduates.

If this deferment program is to serve the best interests of the nation in regard to its national welfare and security, there must be some provision made whereby all students who are selected for advanced training for responsible positions will find it possible to avail themselves of the opportunity. In the hopes that this may become a reality we offer the following resolution:

WHEREAS, the President of the United States, in his recent executive order con-

¹ This report is based on the findings of Group 1B, one of the two groups considering this topic. Analyst was M. H. Trytten, National Research Council; chairman was C. Scott Porter, Amherst College; consultant was Enock C. Dyrness, Wheaton College; consultant on public relations was Marvin W. Topping, American College Public Relations Association.

cerning the deferment of college students, has indicated official recognition of the importance of higher education to the national welfare, and

WHEREAS, in these critical times it is essential that all individuals be enabled to devote themselves to those activities in which they can make their maximum contribution to the national effort,

BE IT THEREFORE RESOLVED: That the Conference go on record as urging that the Federal Government undertake a program which will enable all qualified students to pursue college education regardless of financial ability.

A program of deferment in the interest of the nation's needs would not be complete unless it makes provision to include graduate students. In a period such as we are in now the need for fundamental research becomes paramount. The greater part of this research work in science, technical processes, and all other fields of advanced study has always been done by graduate students. Therefore, graduate students making satisfactory progress toward their next degree should be included in the deferment program as was recommended by the advisory committee.

It is impossible to say today what will be the needed fields of research and preparation next year. We should, therefore, continue our fundamental research in all

fields, not just in preparation for war but also in preparation of the peace.

In the light of possible competition between the armed services and civilian needs for specially trained and qualified students, the military and civilian authorities should continue to give careful attention to the establishment of appropriate criteria for the selection and training of candidates for commissions.

It is suggested that those in charge of the R.O.T.C. programs give continued study and consideration to the advanced training in graduate schools of candidates for commissions giving special promise along professional and technical lines.

We urge that the services continue to give attention to the assignment of young men to those fields in which they show special interest and aptitude with the expectancy that this will sustain their interest in their chosen fields. It is hoped that this will result in the return of many to graduate study upon the completion of their military service.

This whole program of deferment of military service imposes a great moral responsibility upon all colleges in not accepting or retaining those students whose academic achievement does not promise a high return upon the investment being made in them.

REPORT OF GROUP 2

Counseling the Individual Student During This Period of Uncertainty¹

THERON B. MAXSON

Whitworth College

THE college counselor must consider the emotional area of the student's problems as being of equal importance with his intellectual and curricular difficulties. Anxieties are common among students today, due largely to the complexities and uncertainties of the rapidly changing social scene. The military situation is foremost in the thinking of college men and women.

¹ Based on the findings of Group 2 of the Conference. Analyst was Clifford Houston, University of Colorado; chairman was Ruth C. Wright, City College of the City of New York; consultants were Ralph Berdie, University of Minnesota, and T. W. Steen, Southern Missionary College; consultant on public relations was J. H. Mattox, Jr., Louisiana State University.

The field of formal education contains two broad aspects: the acquisition of information and the psychological security of the one in training. Insecurity, therefore, whether in the academic, economic, or the more purely emotional areas of life, should be faced openly, not only by specialists in counseling on the campus but also by members of the faculty proper. The office of admissions, counselors in residence halls, and many other such college departments are concerned directly with student welfare and security and therefore should be considered as an integral part of the counseling program. Well-trained and carefully selected student leaders should be encour-

aged to assist other students to a better understanding of their individual tensions and to assist them further to seek help from more mature counselors if such help is needed. The college campus can become better known as a place of resolving various types of conflicts. Teaching itself is not divorced from the counseling program.

Only a small percentage of college students is believed to be so immature or deeply maladjusted emotionally and mentally as to demand highly specialized psychiatric care. Many more students can benefit from educational, vocational, and personal counseling provided by trained psychological counselors. Numerous student problems can be handled by faculty and other staff counselors. In each case, however, the counselor or guidance person must believe firmly in the personal worthiness of the individual student and maintain a keen awareness of the sensitive areas in the lives of campus dwellers. This is particularly true in an hour of military uncertainty with the many questions arising secondarily therefrom. Counseling is not for the few but concerns itself developmentally with a vast part of the student population. Counseling and guidance people should show an untiring willingness to expend necessary energy to find and use information pertinent to the need at hand or to make proper referral to someone else. In as far as possible this assistance should point to the solution of problems before they reach serious proportions.

A great deal of information about student life is essential in producing in college administrators and faculty an awareness of counseling possibilities. Certain techniques can be employed. These include: (1) workshops in counseling techniques; (2) awareness of library resource materials; (3) possible reduction of teaching load in order to provide more time for student counseling; (4) establishment of a faculty committee, chosen by the faculty, to assist the group in being alert to student tensions and in finding ways of meeting them; (5) use of literature provided by military services; (6) faculty-student committees to analyze areas of insecurity; (7) development of a philosophy of counseling which incorporates accepted methods in keeping with the basic philosophy of the school.

All practical means should be used in assisting the student to "feel at home" during his years on the campus. This is

merely a recognition of a sound principle of mental health and happy living. This also is equally applicable to the counselor in order that his attitude may be reflected to the student. General student morale could well be probed occasionally through the use of written samplings of student opinions and inventories of student outlook with regard to the college program and the degree of faculty and administration concern over student tensions. Such findings might well indicate reasons for decline in cooperation, lowering of grades, lack of participation in college programs, shifts in curricular interest, and avoidance of certain counseling agencies. A frank recognition of weaknesses and areas of strain will be found to be of real value.

A rising interest and demand on the part of students for a broadening of religious counseling has been sensed in many quarters. This applies to both group and individual religious guidance. From many viewpoints, practical and therapeutic, religion will play a new and more vital part in assisting the confused student to a broader sense of obligation and moral worth and to find purpose and meaning within the insecure social setting. Religious counseling can supply basic attitudes and assist in meeting insecurity. Referral to able persons in this area is as important as referral to specialists in other fields of counseling.

Courses generally classified under the heading of "general education" have high value in assisting the student toward finding broader meanings in his culture. Adaptability and wide perspective for one entering either civilian or military pursuits is enhanced through subjects in the social sciences and the humanities.

A major consideration for counselors at this time has to do with the type of guidance given students prior to their entrance into active military service. The over-all national welfare is the prime consideration. During that period prior to the time when the student's physical presence is required elsewhere by his country, he should be counseled carefully regarding personal and national objectives with reference to educational pursuits. This may prevent "drifting" and loss. Counseling must deal with national manpower policies, interpreting them in the best interests of national policy and need. In this respect the area of public

relations becomes a part of the total counseling process. The public at large must understand basic reasons for guidance given by colleges.

Students who fall below certain grade norms, either in academic pursuits or aptitude tests, demand assistance in maintaining a sense of personal worth and useful-

ness. This phase of college counseling has often been neglected. A need for higher educational standards is fostered in the interest of national and military requirements. Both those who have succeeded and those who have failed must be helped to discover new areas of responsibility and usefulness.

REPORT OF GROUP 3A

Administering the Student-Personnel Program¹

MILDRED B. SAYRE

Arizona State College

THE importance of the student-personnel program in the current emergency is apparent. It serves to facilitate the optimum return on educational objectives. It serves also as an educational medium itself through its service programs.

Recognition of the role of the student-personnel program in the institution of higher education today indicates need for a careful evaluation of this area to determine its administrative aspects. Such an evaluation falls into three categories. First, those areas legitimately within the administrative jurisdiction of the student-personnel program; second, appraisal of the title of the administrative officer of the student-personnel program; third, evaluation of the position of the program in the general administrative pattern.

Areas of the student services legitimately within the administrative jurisdiction of a student-personnel program evolve functionally as those areas which impinge upon the welfare and developmental growth of the student. Such areas, or services, are coordinate parts of a whole. Interaction eliminates precedence or priority of any one service. The significance of a given service is dependent upon the need for it in a given situation and the proportion of its contribution in meeting that need. Such services, while they may fall into separate areas within the organization, should be coordinated and centralized.

¹ Two independent, parallel groups considered this topic. The report here presented is based on the findings of Group 3A of the Conference. Analyst was Daniel D. Feder, University of Denver; chairman was Bernard L. Hyink, University of Southern California; consultant was L. L. Love, University of Mississippi.

Admissions and registration procedures include personnel services. Preregistration counseling includes parent contacts, program selection, financial planning, scholarship evaluation by examination, health examination, and general public relations.

Establishment of records—transcripts and cumulative personnel records—is vital to optimum service to the individual student. Administration of this area, as of others, is dependent on the individual institution, its staff, and its physical facilities.

Counseling services are many and varied and underly the entire personnel program. Whether group or individual, the major types of counseling are found to be in orientation of the student to the institution and of the institution to the student, in educational counseling—the selection of courses, course changes, and evaluation of progress. (Too much emphasis cannot be placed on the value of counseling through the withdrawal interview which should precede any official steps for the withdrawal of the student from the college community.)

The student-health service functions not only as a referral agency and preventive resource, but as an educational unit. Beginning with its admission health examination a continual program of health education contributes to the student's welfare. The inclusion of mental health in this service area is accepted today. Increasingly adequate psychiatric staffs are being retained to meet the needs of students in their adjustment problems.

Housing and food services correlate with other areas such as admissions, the student-health service, student activities, and counseling. Student government and training

for leadership are important aspects of this area.

Student activities expand into publications, drama, athletics, and Greek-letter societies. Student activities are referred to as co-curricular as their educational values are increasingly recognized. Special-interest activities carry educational value in special fields. The administration of athletics varies. The relation of the student to the control of the intramural as well as the over-all program is important. Administration by a graduate manager, faculty, and student-personnel-staff representation would seem to be equitable. The need for student autonomy and merit in guidance and training through continuity of administrative participation is recognized.

Financial services include the administration of loans, scholarships, part-time employment, and placement. The close coordination of student employment and placement has been found effective. Conscious development of alumni relations is a logical step beyond placement of graduates. Interrelation of these services is apparent. Preadmission counseling is important in attracting superior students, as are scholarship awards.

Student conduct, traditionally and unfortunately referred to as discipline, is an area of significant importance in the student-personnel program. Administered as a program of education in values and standards, the concept of the judicial and penal is to be avoided. Self-discipline should be emphasized. Student action and committee action are to be encouraged. Administrative responsibility in enforcement involving action beyond student authority is recognized. Joint responsibility of faculty, students, and administration for maintenance of established standards is desirable. Students need education in desirable and acceptable patterns of behavior to assume their role in the college or civic community. Disciplinary action should be remedial, and a counseling technique is to be preferred. The student-personnel program carries a responsibility as a medium for the encouragement of *appropriate action* in regard both to the situation and to the student.

Clinics for special services such as test-

ing, reading, speech, and study need to be coordinated within a program even though centered in the appropriate department or off campus as a referral agency. Actual organization of such clinics is dependent on budget and staff.

Education in values and religious living fall within the pattern of personnel services. In some situations this is considered a legitimate part of the student-activities area through student religious organizations. Valid emphasis on counseling in the area is recognized with the increasing awareness of need for values in any constructive life plan.

Foreign-student counseling has assumed increasing importance in the international situation today. These students have special adjustment and counseling needs which fall logically within the student-personnel program.

These functions just described, all of which are to some extent interrelated, fall into separate administrative divisions within the over-all program. Their emphasis and administration are, of necessity, determined by institutional size and staff availability.

Variation in the title of the administrative officer of the personnel program reflects the transitional period in the development of this area of the educational pattern. Function should determine the title in any given situation, and academic status should be consistently relevant to the educational program. "Dean of Student Life," "Director of Personnel," "Counselor," and "Dean of Students" are those titles most commonly heard. In some instances a vice president carries out these administrative functions. This officer should be coordinated administratively with the dean of the college or dean of instruction and directly responsible to the president.

The position of the student-personnel program in the general administrative pattern of higher education was considered of such importance that the group passed the following resolution: "The student-personnel function is an integral part of the developmental program for the whole student; the area should be administratively coordinate with the areas of instruction and of business and finance."

REPORT OF GROUP 3B

Administering the Student-Personnel Program¹

WESLEY P. LLOYD

Brigham Young University

NEW and effective patterns in administering student-personnel programs are among the foremost recent developments in higher education. The fundamental recognition that success or failure in the classroom often is related closely to the campus out-of-class experience of a student has brought a major transition in college-and-university administration and emphasis.

With the rapid expansion of personnel services on the campuses of the nation has come the necessity for measuring and evaluating these services. In personnel programs, as in subject-matter offerings, the starting point of evaluation is to determine not their assumed but their actual contributions to the welfare of students. In personnel services the words "actual welfare of students" are not to be interpreted in the sense of merely meeting the student's own recognized need. Appropriate emphasis may well be given to reciprocal relations between the student and his college. Each has obligations to the other. Each in turn contributes to the other.

The scope of student-personnel services. The administrative organization of these services includes the areas of admission and registration, counseling, student health, housing and food, the activities of student organizations, student financial needs, conduct and discipline, special clinics, and problems in the educational programs of foreign students. In a large number of colleges the program of religious activities forms a separate unit within student personnel.

A most significant operational problem in the administration of the personnel services is the prevention of duplication and waste in personnel and money. Any administrative pattern which leaves these

services fragmentary and unrelated and tends to multiply referrals to the president's desk is wasteful and ineffective.

Administrative personnel. The present practice of a growing number of institutions to delegate to a major administrative officer responsibilities for these services is commendable. This officer reports directly to the president and in turn is held responsible for effective administration of the total number of these closely related areas. The titles "Director of Student-Personnel Services," "Dean of Students," and "Vice President in Charge of Student Personnel," are among those in common use today. Whatever the title of the administrative officer, his responsibility to the president for the effective coordination of all student-personnel services seems clear.

Policy-making for the institution does not come within the duties of the student-personnel organization. Its function is administrative. The administrative officer of student personnel, who usually functions also as a member of policy-making bodies of the institution, may make recommendations based on discovered needs.

First steps. The first relationship between student-personnel services and the student may come appropriately in the preregistration approach of the college or university to the student and to his secondary school. This is a part of public relations which should operate within the personnel organization and relate closely to the office of admissions. In this way preregistration will form a part of the introduction of the student to his college.

Antiquated systems of registration which waste student time and energy are not entirely outmoded. Provision of adequate facilities for registration and for personnel trained for the job of registration is of primary concern to the administrator of the personnel program. Buildings spacious enough to avoid crowding, the prevention of slowly moving lines, and the business operation performed with dispatch are essentials in helping the student feel that

¹ This report is based on the findings of Group 3B, one of the two groups considering this topic. Analyst was Daniel D. Feder, University of Denver; chairman was J. Thomas Askew, University of Georgia; consultant was O. T. Richardson, Ball State Teachers College.

from the first the university-personnel administration knows what is to be done and how to do it. In such atmosphere the student forms patterns that may flavor his entire college life.

Records. Records must be readily available if they are to be properly used. Availability does not imply disregard for the proper protection of records nor their misuse by unauthorized personnel. There is general consensus that all too often the records get "frozen" and useless through lack of proper record facilities. Protection of personnel records of a highly confidential nature makes complete centralization of records impractical in some institutions, but it is not an excuse for the lack of a systematic record arrangement.

Counseling services. Counseling on a professional basis is making significant advancement in institutions of higher learning throughout the country. A constant problem is the tendency of faculty members in general to turn an increasing number of common out-of-class problems to an understaffed service of professional counselors. In meeting this problem, university faculties should be aware of the responsibility of the teaching staff for counseling in one or more of the following four commonly recognized levels of counseling: (1) advisory and information counseling, as in

the instance of simple requirements and rules of the institution; (2) counseling on the basis of discovered special needs in regular campus adjustments; (3) individual diagnosis by appointed faculty counselors who have had the advantage of effective in-service training; (4) counseling on personality problems requiring the help of professionally trained counselors.

Counselors acting in all of the above levels should give early recognition to problems requiring referral to other agencies or persons properly trained to meet the special-student needs.

Student government. One phase of personnel work is related to the rights and freedoms of students on the campus and of the place of student government in the total college program. The speculative era of campus-community organization seemed largely over when there came wide recognition that no unit of the college or university, whether it be student, faculty, or administration, could operate independently of the other, that authority exercised in any area of democratic life is a delegated authority and in no case does it supersede the source of its delegated power. Student organizations and student governments discover that freedom and responsibility are twin principles operating within the area delegated to them by the institution.

REPORT OF GROUP 4

Next Steps in Removing Barriers to Higher-Education Opportunity¹

C. E. PARTCH

Rutgers University

PROBABLY the greatest national resource rests in the youth of the nation. To educate all youth to a realization of their full abilities is a worthy social and economic objective, from the point of view both of the individual and of society. Surveys have shown that less than one-half of the secondary-school pupils who have demonstrated they are capable of doing

college work really go to college. The reasons given for failure to enter college may be identified as (1) basic barriers that exert the greatest handicap for entrance into college and (2) secondary barriers that in many instances are dependent upon the basic barriers yet are nonetheless directly responsible for many youth failing to realize their ambition to go to college.

Basic barriers. Barriers of the greatest importance are related to (a) economic conditions, (b) race, (c) religion and/or nationality, and (d) geographic location.

Limited family income is probably the greatest single factor preventing well-

¹ Based on the findings of Group 4 of the Conference. Analyst was Buell G. Gallagher, United States Office of Education; chairman was Felton G. Clark, Southern University and Agricultural and Mechanical College; consultant was Edward Dyer, Phillips University.

qualified students from going to college. The community as a whole must become increasingly aware of the importance of higher education as an essential for intelligent and responsible citizenship. Specific steps that can be taken to overcome the handicap of the economic barrier are provisions for scholarships, fellowships, subsidies for specific purposes, and loans. Assistance of this nature may be given on the national, state, local, and institutional levels. The reduction of tuition rates would eliminate the barriers for many boys and girls and enable them to obtain a college education.

Within recent years, particularly this past year, the barrier of race has become less pronounced. Negro students have been admitted to many colleges to which previously they had been denied admission. It is encouraging to note that in many instances the changes in attitude have been affected by college students themselves, with both white and Negro students working cooperatively to break down one of the most damaging barriers of our times.

There is little evidence to show that much progress has been made to remove the barriers of religion or nationality. In fact, in the graduate and professional schools the situation seems to be worse. The "Fair Education Practices Act" that is now in force in some states gives official recognition to the problem and provides a foundation upon which improved practices may be built.

The individual's place of residence has a strong determining influence on his educational opportunity. If he lives in a section where the *per-capita* income is low, the

lack of income constitutes a barrier which is due to geographic location. The distance from his home to a college is frequently a factor.

Secondary barriers. Secondary barriers can, in many instances, be modified, changed, and made less objectionable by constructive, cooperative effort. Among this group of barriers are those due to (a) curricular organization, (b) administrative procedure, (c) social customs, (d) legislative action, (e) acts of professional groups, and (f) sex.

These secondary barriers are probably less important than the basic barriers and in many instances are dependent upon them. It is the basic barriers that present most of the crucial problems. Pending legislation regarding the program of federal financial aid for worthy and needy college students seems to be one means of removing some of the economic barriers. In the discussion of this topic the group was not in full agreement. Some of the group felt that money made available to a student on a loan basis would be more desirable than an outright scholarship gift. It was also felt that adequate safeguards should be established to assure the proper expenditures for which the appropriations were made.

The discussion of professional barriers disclosed a growing tendency to establish more and greater barriers by the professional and semiprofessional organizations through the limitation of educational opportunities for training established by those organizations, and through the limitation of opportunities for employment after training.

REPORT OF GROUP 5

Extending G. I. Educational Benefits¹

E. W. PLOENGES

Millikin University

RECENTLY the Congress of the United States passed legislation extending the benefits of Public Law 16 to the Korean veteran. Legislation is now being considered that would provide educational benefits to the Korean veteran who does not qualify under this law. In view of this proposed legislation, it was timely to consider this proposal in the light of experiences the institutions of higher learning have had with existing laws. Each participant in the group has had rather extended experience with the administration of the present educational benefits on the operational level. It was therefore possible to discuss with understanding the desirable, as well as the undesirable, features of the proposed legislation.

Any consideration of new legislation which would extend educational benefits to the Korean veteran must, of necessity, take into account a number of factors. First of all the group was cognizant of the fact that any program would represent a sizable expense and that this item should be considered when recommendations were made. Furthermore, a program of this type would need to be educationally sound and provide useful benefits to the individual veteran as well as long-term benefits to the entire nation. In considering these aspects, opinion ranged all the way from no benefits to the Korean veteran to a reasonable extension of the present benefits under Public Law 346. The group finally concluded that to provide educational benefits to the Korean veteran would be a distinct benefit to the individual veteran and would be an asset to the nation as a whole. Money so spent was considered to be well spent.

The question then became one of what the extent and nature of the educational

benefits might be. The group was, of course, concerned primarily with benefits that would be provided for veterans who would be trained in institutions of higher learning. It did not consider benefits to veterans who would attend proprietary schools or such training programs as "on-the-job" and farm training. This group did not consider this latter area as a part of its agenda. In the light of experience with the current program, the group did conclude, however, that any future legislation granting educational benefits should be so drawn that there would be a clear distinction between educational benefits provided on the college level and those provided in areas below the college level.

Acceptable educational practices vary in detail even among institutions on the college level. Regulations to meet this situation would appear difficult enough but to provide a set of regulations covering all types of schools could, as it has in the past, only lead to many situations that make administration costly, burdensome, and, in many instances, unsatisfactory to the schools. From the general discussions came recommendations which the group unanimously adopted. They are as follows:

1. Any new legislation should provide an advisory committee to the Veterans' Administrator—this committee to have nine members: three college presidents, three college-business managers, and three directors of veterans' affairs. The group expressed the opinion that the directors of veterans' affairs would prove to be valuable as members of the committee in view of their experiences on the operational level.

2. A clear line of demarcation should be made between education obtained in public and private nonprofit educational institutions over against training provided in other areas such as "on-the-job" training, farm training, and training in proprietary schools.

3. The group did not consider itself sufficiently informed at this time to suggest specific provisions for any new legislation with respect to the method and amount of

¹ Based on the findings of Group 5 of the Conference. Analyst was J. P. Colbert, University of Nebraska; chairman was R. R. Hamilton, University of Wyoming; consultants were S. H. Coile, Veterans Administration; and H. V. Stirling, Veterans Administration; consultant on public relations was W. Lowell Treaster, Michigan State College.

payments to institutions or veterans. It was therefore decided to request the NEA Department of Higher Education to conduct a survey for the purpose of receiving advice. Upon completion of the survey, the results should be communicated to the Committee on the Education of Veterans. The group does, however, recommend the plan of awarding scholarship assistance to veterans rather than the type of benefits which are given under present legislation.

4. The present provisions of Public Law 346 which relate to books and supplies

should be omitted from the new legislation. To compensate the veteran for the loss which will result, it is recommended that the scholarship allowance be increased by a comparable amount. The group was led to this conclusion from the experience in the field. It is hoped that such a provision might greatly simplify procedure as well as effect economies for the respective institutions and the government.

5. Congress should be requested to provide a reasonable statute of limitations on payments.

REPORT OF GROUP 6

Fostering Student Growth in Religion, Moral Standards, and Spiritual Values¹

SISTER ROSE DOMINIC

Saint Mary College

A TWOFOLD problem presented itself to Group 6: First, the dichotomy that exists between high-grade study and teaching of religion, and the practical moral values based on faith. Second, the cleavage between modern patterns of living and the spiritual-moral foundations upon which Western culture is based.

Academic respectability in teaching religion has not yet been attained in many institutions. Where religion may be taught, the spiritual values that should be part of the student's education are frequently not "caught." Where no positive religion courses are taught, the young student, entering with religious commitments not based on reflection, is often subjected to instructors who reflect much without ever arriving at a commitment. The result is a young person without "reflective commitments," frustrated and without moorings, seeking something he cannot find.

Several procedures might help to reestablish an integration of our Judao-Christian cultural heritage with our modern patterns of living. (1) A positive religious emphasis incorporated into the core courses such as *History of Civilization* or *Humanities* would avoid the compartmentalization of religion. (2) Faculty and student aware-

ness of institutional aims and purposes would facilitate moral and spiritual insight, since it is scarcely possible to attain the aims and objectives of our institutions, as stated in their catalogs, without presupposing such values. (3) Expert expressions of the religious ideal can be brought before students through lecture programs or conferences by outstanding campus visitors.

Continued discussion of the vital matters outlined above led the group to formulate the following resolution to be presented for consideration by the Conference:

WHEREAS, there is now a world-wide challenge to the moral and spiritual values which have been the foundation of our Western culture, and

WHEREAS, there is widespread evidence of moral and spiritual deterioration in our own midst, and

WHEREAS, competence, in and of itself, has little meaning apart from the direction in which it is applied, and

WHEREAS, this direction depends upon a reflective commitment to moral and spiritual values by which the individual is willing to work and live,

BE IT THEREFORE RESOLVED: That institutions of higher learning accept their responsibilities in the area of values by: (1) clarifying their policies regarding the moral and spiritual aspects of education and (2) implementing these policies in administrative practice, in curriculum content, and in extra-curricular activities.

Additional practical suggestions, applic-

¹ Based on the findings of Group 6 of the Conference. Analyst was George Hedley, Mills College; chairman was Hobart F. Heller, Eastern Illinois State College; consultant was M. Willard Lampe, State University of Iowa.

able to all types of higher-education institutions and intended to implement some of the values sought in the resolution, are important both for faculty members and students since faculty attitudes are the most important single factor in student growth. These are: (1) the strengthening and developing of more significant religious conferences with their psychological value in reanimating religious spirit; (2) critical examination of existent religious programs; (3) development of broad cultural conferences in which religion plays a significant role and has opportunity to demonstrate its integrating vitality.

In this way students gain experience in making value judgments. Book displays and discussion groups supplement the work of the conferences. Taken from a different

angle, the fine arts may be enlisted to assist in projecting spiritual values: music such as *The Messiah*, dramas selected for their wholesome values, art with a religious background.

The moral and spiritual climate of the college can be improved through active participation of the students in religious organizations and student government, which develop a sense of responsibility for honorable living, effective in class and campus activities. Faculty counselors are able to deal with students when they are confronted with their deepest personal problems. The greatest single factor in achieving appreciations and commitments to moral and spiritual values will always be the faculty itself. "You whisper what you say, but you thunder what you are."

REPORT OF GROUP 7

Educating Foreign Students Here and Abroad¹

EUNICE CHAPMAN

Hastings College

CHALLENGES facing higher education today in meeting the educational needs confronting America in her role of world leadership are greater than ever before. Educators face the problem of making other peoples of the world aware of the potency of ideas as a means of maintaining and sustaining world peace. Through a program of international education, cultural exchange, and technical assistance, we may expect to make essential progress toward world peace by helping men and women to understand the culture and background of countries other than their own. When we realize that 30,000 foreign students from 121 different countries are now studying in the United States in 1425 different institutions of higher learning, that 20,000 American students will study abroad during the calendar year, and that \$75,000,000 will be spent this year in the student-exchange program, we realize that the education of students in foreign countries is already a well-established activity.

The United States Government realizes that the all-round development of other nations is vital to the success of world affairs and has accordingly laid the groundwork for assisting many of the underdeveloped nations to raise their educational standards. Student-exchange programs, sponsored by the United States, have mainly been used for graduate students. Those best known are as follows: (1) the program for one year of study provided by the Department of State and the Department of the Army as part of the reorientation program for a group of carefully screened young people from Austria, Germany, and Japan; (2) the Smith-Mundt program, a part of our Good-Neighbor cultural exchange policy, which provides fellowships for foreign students to study in the United States; (3) the Fulbright program, which provides funds for American students, teachers, and professors to pursue their study abroad; at present they are studying in 20 different countries. In addition, there is the present emergency program for the 3,000 Chinese students stranded in this country.

Of greater significance than any of these programs, however, is the one still in the planning stage—President Truman's Point-

¹ Based on the findings of Group 7 of the Conference. Analyst was Donald J. Shank, Institute of International Education; chairman was Paul V. Sangren, Western Michigan College of Education; consultants were Paul Lietz, Loyola University, Chicago, Illinois, and Paul E. Smith, United States Office of Education.

IV program: Plans for the educational division of the Point-IV setup give promise of a program vast in scope and accomplishment as it opens the way for America to send to those countries that ask for them some of her educational leaders; it will be their job to work with the economic and industrial leaders in raising the standards of living in the countries to which they are assigned. When we realize that two-thirds of the world's population live in economically underdeveloped areas, when the life span in such countries as India is 30 years, it can be seen that the scope of the international-education plan is tremendous.

The Department of State has asked the Institute of International Education to assume responsibility for administering scholarships and has assigned responsibility to the United States Office of Education for both the teacher-exchange programs and the Point-IV program. The Associate Research Council has supervision over post-doctoral-research study for foreign students in America in such fields as law, medicine, dentistry, nursing, and public health.

As opportunities under each of these programs become better known, as students and teachers learn more about them, it is to the applicant's advantage to secure information about the countries for which there is the greatest demand, as well as the least, before he makes application for a scholarship. Likewise it is to the student's advantage to study carefully the requirements he will be expected to meet for the scholarship or exchange program in which he is interested. Needless to say, a knowledge of the language used in the foreign country to which he proposes to go is of prime importance.

As procedures for the Point-IV program get under way, there may be a tendency on the part of some colleges and universities to try to provide a complete unit of training for leaders going to one particular country; for example, training in language, history, social background, educational needs, engineering needs, medical and nursing needs. Unless the college or university offering the training has equally good facilities in all these fields, such an arrangement does not seem advisable. Furthermore, the student preparing for overseas' duty would do well to broaden his outlook and preparation by studying in more than one institution.

Foremost in the development of international understanding is the willingness of people to cultivate an attitude of world-mindedness, that is, a feeling of interdependence and an unselfish interest in other nations. Means available for such development may be found on almost any college campus: an intensification of foreign-language study, an intensive training program for language teachers, a revitalizing of courses in comparative education, political science, history, geography, and sociology, also a utilization of the resources already present, especially the students from foreign countries who are already here. They can make a real contribution by presenting the culture of their home country at its best.

Stimulating among students and professors the desire to pursue a program of international education abroad through the various exchange programs will be one of the first considerations in popularizing the study. It is a well-known fact that firsthand observation over a period of time of the various aspects of life in a foreign country does much more than textbook material to give the student an appreciation and real understanding of a civilization other than his own. When people live, work, play, and study together, they learn to appreciate each other's background and culture.

Effectiveness of foreign study for our American students can be increased by developing among them an appreciation and understanding of other civilizations and cultures. Our American representatives abroad, however, should be warned not to make the mistake of trying to transplant our American culture in nations that do not want it. A thorough orientation program preceding the trip abroad is strongly recommended for students. It is also important for them to understand that the economic development of a country and a rise in living standards go hand in hand with educational development.

American colleges and universities that sponsor study centers in foreign countries during the summer have a part to play in the program of international understanding; colleges should evaluate carefully, however, all such programs before approving them, inasmuch as many of exceedingly questionable value are now in operation; people who are essentially tourists engaged in rapid sight-seeing have but little basis for developing an appreciation or understand-

ing of any foreign culture. Summer workshops in international understanding, or study groups in teachers' institutes during the regular school year can also help in a very practical way to broaden the horizons of both students and teachers.

Foreign students coming to America to study often feel that they have been transplanted to an unbelievable fairyland of wonder. The American institutions, in their eagerness to enroll them, should not overlook these facts: In the long run it is advisable to admit to an American institution only those foreign students who are prepared to profit by the type of instruction offered; the colleges should be honest and admit to such highly specialized programs as premedicine, for example, only those who will likely have an opportunity to continue their chosen training. Though there are now screening centers in 62 foreign countries to advise students wishing to study in America, much remains to be done in placing them in an institution where they "fit," and in advising them to begin by entering a language school when their knowledge of English is insufficient.

Once the foreign student is admitted, a heavy responsibility lies upon the college to see that he has the opportunity to secure firsthand information regarding the American way of life, to see how American democracy works with its system of free schools and free enterprise. It is likely that the most valuable things the foreign student will learn during his stay in America will be outside the classroom, and it is important that he learn them in the way that best represents our life. In this regard the college community has a vital and important part to play. For that reason the foreign student will in all probability see more of the varied activities of American life if he attends a small school in a not-too-large community.

Among the many things we want our foreign guests to appreciate and explain to their fellow countrymen is the dignity of labor in America. They often find it difficult to understand that American students actually do manual labor to help finance themselves through school; yet this is all a part of our American way of life.

Even though the foreign student finds life in America more fascinating than his own, his American friends should not fail to respect the native culture he has brought with him, for it too has its points of

strength. Generally speaking, the student educated abroad will make his greatest contribution to society by returning to his homeland and interpreting in a sympathetic and constructive way to his own people the new culture which he has learned to appreciate.

Inasmuch as the demand for scholarship assistance far exceeds the supply, the question of scholarship renewal for a second year inevitably presents itself in any discussion of student exchange. Such questions as these should be considered: Will the student qualify for a degree? What has been his previous record? For what is he preparing? Will he be a better leader when he returns home if he continues another year, or would more be accomplished if some other student had an opportunity to study a year in his place?

The advisability of completing requirements for a degree in a foreign college or university, particularly in America, is a problem that confronts every student who studies abroad. Either the student should make up his mind early to meet the regular-degree requirements of the institution, or he should enroll as a special student and carry only the courses most beneficial to him. Too often foreign students prefer to work for a degree without recognizing that the college must rigidly require them to take the courses required of other degree candidates, except perhaps in foreign languages. It is usually to their advantage both in time and money to take the courses that will be of most benefit to them for the purpose they have in mind—and accordingly forget about the degree.

The kinds of personnel needed in educational institutions to represent the United States abroad may be an entirely different kind of personnel from the ones needed at home. In fact, one of the great handicaps in setting up the Point-IV program is the lack of personnel fitted to do the multitudinous things they will need to do if they are to accomplish the full purpose of the program. It is not just college personnel that are needed; greatest of all is the need in the elementary field for men and women who not only have the ability to teach but also a very real and practical sense of values and a great deal of ingenuity; they must be able to exercise leadership by helping the people raise their standard of living with some very commonplace living problems. To be specific, a

teacher who knows how to use a hammer and saw, knows even the rudiments of sanitary principles, is the kind of man who is needed.

Even with the shortage of trained personnel, there is a great urgency for developing the foreign-study program, especially

under Point IV, at the earliest possible moment. The study group on foreign students therefore recognizes one of the most stimulating and inspiring challenges ever presented to the American educational system. The field is wide open for some real leaders with the pioneering spirit.

REPORT OF GROUP 8

Predicting College Enrollments in the Period of Mobilization¹

ELBERT W. OCKERMAN

Morris Harvey College

THE task of college-and-university administrators in predicting enrollments in this period of mobilization is beset with many confusions and uncertainties. For most higher institutions the job of preparing budgets for the years ahead is an exceedingly difficult one, and the task for the 1951-1952 academic year is crucial. It becomes important, therefore, for each institution to know as nearly as possible the intentions of its present student body regarding continuation next fall. The technique of an informative poll to determine the draft status of all male students would seem to be of considerable value at this point. Information gained through this and other reliable and legitimate methods should be brought to bear by institutions of higher education to assure a sane course of action for this period of uncertainty. In fact it is at this point that the most difficult, yet the most important, job remains to be done by colleges and universities.

The specific factors which affect and govern college enrollments in this period of mobilization can probably be set forth within the framework of three general headings: (1) constant and fairly normal factors which influence enrollment on the local level and presumably are already well known to the colleges; (2) special factors affecting the nondraftable college groups,

which each institution should evaluate and relate to its own local situation; (3) military-service regulations and pronouncements.

There are obviously present in each local college-or-university situation certain constant factors which influence enrollment, such as strong or weak denominational affiliations, traditions, and normal population trends. These constant factors certainly must be taken into consideration by each institution in predicting its enrollment.

Additional factors growing out of the present situation but applying to the nondraftable college population would include the following: (1) fluctuation of the population curve of the college-age group; (2) shifts in the local population due to increased war production; (3) addition of graduate or professional programs in individual institutions; (4) recent college-or-university accreditation; (5) increased job opportunities; (6) change in the marriage rate; (7) availability of additional financial aid to students; (8) additional part-time-job opportunities for students; (9) increased efforts at recruiting students, and modified admissions policies; (10) extent of vocational opportunities for graduates; (11) extent of community pressure on men to enter military service.

All of the 11 foregoing factors may vary greatly according to the type and location of the institution, and therefore should be given special study in order to predict more accurately enrollments for individual institutions.

¹ Based on the findings of Group 8 of the Conference. Analyst was Robert C. Story, United States Office of Education; chairman was The Reverend Thomas C. Donohue, S. J., Saint Louis University; consultant was Edward F. Potthoff, University of Illinois.

TABLE I
Estimated Enrollment in Colleges and Universities
 1951 - 1953
 (in thousands)

| Fall | All students full and part-time | Full-time undergraduate | | | Part-time undergraduate | Graduate students full and part-time |
|------|---------------------------------------|----------------------------|-------|-------|----------------------------|---|
| | | Men | Women | Total | Men and Women | |
| (1) | (2) | (3) | (4) | (5) | (6) | (7) |
| 1950 | 2,297 | 1,059 | 522 | 1,581 | 496 | 220 |
| 1951 | 2,045 | 875 | 517 | 1,392 | 431 | 222 |
| 1952 | 1,900 | 778 | 502 | 1,280 | 396 | 224 |
| 1953 | 1,817 | 715 | 500 | 1,215 | 376 | 226 |

The data presented in Table I are based upon several working assumptions which are necessarily tentative, since official decisions on pertinent issues may be expected to vary according to the changing picture of manpower needs of the country. The assumptions are as follows: (1) The number of students initially entering college will not be materially affected by the draft since most students enter at age 18 and present regulations require the drafting of all available men above that age before the 18-year-olds are reached; (2) the exemption from military service of students medically disqualified under standards consistent with a ten-per-cent-rejection rate among high-school graduates entering college; (3) approximately 90,000 R.O.T.C. freshmen each year, beginning with the fall of 1951; (4) the deferral of students not covered in (2) and (3) according to a prescribed pattern of class standing (i.e., upper half of freshman class, upper two-thirds of sophomore class, upper three-fourths of junior class); (5) approximately 25,000 veterans of World War II enrolled as freshmen in the fall of 1951.

The projected figures do not make allowance for enlistments of present college students; such allowance would reduce the projected number of students. On the other hand, the projections do not include any servicemen who might be expected to return to college beginning in the fall of 1952.

The above table of estimated enrollment for the period 1951 through 1953 is particularly interesting at two points. First, it will be observed that the drop in enrollment of full-time women students during

this period is not a drastic one. This is due largely to the generally accepted belief that it requires a ten-per-cent reduction in male enrollment to produce a one-per-cent reduction in female enrollment. Second, it will be noted that an increase in graduate enrollment for the period is predicted. This predicted increase is based partially on the belief that (1) there is usually a lag of three or four years between large college-graduating classes and the full impact of graduate-school enrollment; (2) the provision for the upper half of senior classes to enter graduate school as prescribed in the proposed student-deferment plan should produce a large graduate-school enrollment; (3) the deferral of students now in graduate school will work toward greater holding power in this area; (4) pay increases for large numbers of teachers and higher certification requirements based on graduate work will probably increase enrollments.

The foregoing estimate for the fall of 1951 represents a reduction of 11 per cent below the total enrollment for the fall of 1950. This constitutes a very favorable picture in view of the fact that an over-all decline of approximately seven per cent would have been expected even in the absence of mobilization conditions. The above estimates for the years beyond are subject to much more uncertainty; however, a note of optimism might be injected in view of factors such as the possible extension of G.I. educational benefits and completion of military service by potential college students.

REPORT OF GROUP 9

Adapting Institutional Organization and Administration to Mobilization Conditions¹

HOMER L. KNIGHT

Westminster College

THE President's executive order on student deferment has done much to clarify immediate administrative problems, but the contribution of higher education to the long-range mobilization needs of the country can best be made with a minimum amount of interruption in the education of college students. The group heartily concurs with the statement of the analyst "... come what may, the institution should endeavor to maintain its fundamental program and its own distinctive character. In the long run the chief contribution will not be significantly different in most institutions from what it has been through the years. The world needs the steady influences of mature scholarship whose processes cannot be greatly accelerated without substantial loss." The group does not take a stand for "business as usual" but for an unusual effort to do the avowed business of higher education.

There is no immediate need for revolutionary changes in administrative or institutional reorganization; however, the need for self-appraisal has been intensified by the recent executive order of the President. It is believed this analysis may result in economy and efficiency in the total institutional operations. Long-range plans should be made and permitted to develop normally, but drastic measures should be avoided.

In some areas there is need for courses cutting across departmental lines. To accomplish such integrated effort, institutions might explore divisional organization as a possible substitute for departmental organization.

Every effort should be made by higher education to develop sound thinking and attitudes and to remove uncertainty from

the minds of people. There is an urgent need to get hold of the issues of the day and to go deeper than the immediate problems of mobilization. The need for the steadying influence of scholarship is most urgent in some areas, and special emphasis in an effort to establish definite objectives is probably desirable.

When military or other contracts are under consideration, care must be taken that specified restrictions and demands do not jeopardize the school's major objectives. Special effort should be made to assure the basic structure of the institution remains unchanged.

It has been concluded generally that there is no need at the present time for extensive introduction of accelerated programs of studies. Nevertheless, the institution should develop a pattern of flexibility in its calendar and course offerings to meet the needs of individual students. The possibilities of giving credit for correspondence courses and certain courses taken during military training should be explored by each institution, but it is not recommended that a policy of accepting credits from a general "war program" be started.

Higher education has traditionally been an integral part of American democracy. An effective public-relations program should be instituted in order to eliminate the erroneous concept of a "special class" that might be associated with superior students deferred in the national interest. In addition, a review of student-aid programs and selection policies might prove worth while.

Institutions should be alert to the opportunities of providing educational services for military installation and defense-related activities in their vicinity. In some instances experiments in this area have proved successful, especially where the personnel is reasonably stable.

The group also discussed present programs of interinstitutional cooperation and explored possible extensions of such cooperative effort. The development of coop-

¹ Based on the findings of Group 9 of the Conference. Analysts were Doak S. Campbell, The Florida State University, and Carroll V. Newsom, New York State Education Department; chairman was Leslie W. Engler, City College of the City of New York; consultant was A. F. Arnason, North Dakota State Regents for Higher Education.

erative projects should be made a specific part of the program of activity of various state, regional, and national educational agencies and foundations.

It is essential that higher education continue to train students for the preservation of our culture while using every effort to

maintain the greatest efficiency in our institutions of higher learning. Care must be taken, however, to sustain the basic objectives of the institutions of higher learning, and for the present, at least, there appears to be no immediate need for drastic reorganization.

REPORT OF GROUP 10

Developing Sound Acceleration Procedures¹

ARTHUR H. PRICE

State Teachers College, Wayne, Nebraska

THE group recognized at the outset of its discussion that acceleration may become desirable and necessary during the present world crisis, but it was evident the members of the group thought the term "acceleration" should not imply a hurried or undesirable educational program but rather a reevaluation of the time to be spent in the program. This might mean a period of longer or shorter duration than the conventional time spent by students.

It was agreed that our superior students have been neglected in our schools and that a suitable program of acceleration should be developed for these youth based upon a continual, careful, and broad appraisal of each student from the first grade of elementary school through college. If this is to be accomplished, it will be necessary to provide complete guidance and counseling programs in all schools at all levels. It is only through such sound practices that necessary standards of academic achievement will be maintained and also necessary adjustments for social maturity realized. In line with this agreement the following recommendation was approved: "It is the consensus of the group that every institution should give close attention to all possible modifications of policy which might facilitate the acceleration of individual students or groups of students without serious educational loss. It is felt that matters of institutional policy, such as scheduling, maximum loads, prerequisites, attendance, and the like, often interfere with the potential rate of progress of

capable students and should be reevaluated."

Many types of acceleration programs were discussed. At the precollege level, some of those mentioned were as follows: extra promotions of superior students, either in groups or individually; increased loads for highly capable students in secondary schools to permit graduation within a shortened period; entrance to college through competitive tests without graduation from high school; extending high-school programs through summer terms.

Methods of acceleration mentioned at the college level were as follows: college credit at the freshman level granted through thorough testing and examination programs; extra course-load for superior students; credit for off-campus experiences (travel, summer field trips, work); improved and simplified methods of instruction; seminar classes taught by superior faculty for superior students; lengthened school year (summer school, trimester programs, four-quarter programs). It was felt that special effort should be made toward the improvement of all instructional methods used at the college level.

It was agreed that no method of acceleration would fit the needs of every institution or should be used by every school, but that every institution should adopt a program in accordance with its policies concerning its guidance program. The group was concerned with the many problems that might arise due to indiscriminate use of these methods, especially with those problems that might arise relative to overworked faculty. It was pointed out that additional compensation should be paid instructional staff for extra load and lengthened or extra terms. It was recom-

¹ Based on the findings of Group 10 of the Conference. Analyst was Sidney L. Pressey, The Ohio State University; chairman was P. C. Gaines, Montana State College; consultant was Arthur H. Hughes, Trinity College.

mended that if accelerated programs were adopted that faculty should be rotated and short vacations for faculty at frequent intervals should be established. It was also suggested that more extensive provision should be made of all types of modern-teacher aids.

In accordance with the above views the following recommendations were passed:

"A more acute national emergency may necessitate full academic acceleration. In the present limited emergency, however, such full acceleration with consequent serious problems is neither necessary nor desirable. Accordingly, so long as the present limited emergency exists, students

in institutions of higher learning should be encouraged to make maximum use of normal means of acceleration made available to them.

"Further, we recommend that the elementary and secondary schools be encouraged to assist superior students to complete the conventional program in less than the usual number of years. It is also recommended that colleges use thorough testing programs and other approved means to give recognition to superior entering students. We suggest that colleges, in cases of markedly superior students, award freshman college credit in specific subject-matter fields upon this basis."

REPORT OF GROUP 11

Providing for Campus Military Programs¹

DONALD J. ROBERTSON

University of North Dakota

IF education is considered as a total process, college administrators are apparently taking the view that there is no essential conflict between education and military training. While the one, they say, inculcates certain ideals for intelligent and responsible citizenship, the other provides the physical and technical training which may be necessary for the defense of those ideals. The Reserve-Officers-Training programs of the Army, Navy, and Air Forces, combining as they do these dual aspects of education, will apparently continue to receive the major emphasis in a period when colleges are meeting either the threat of an immediate war or a long period of preparation for an eventual conflict.

The Reserve-Officers-Training programs are flexible enough to be adapted to such conditions, and they have a long record of successful operation. Organized in such a way that the preeminence of both the academic and the military is recognized in its own field, these programs have obvious

advantages over such on-campus programs as the ASTP and the Navy V-12, which were deemed necessary in the last-minute all-out effort during World War II. As long as present conditions last, college administrators can focus their attention on coordination of these well-established programs, with the end in view of adjusting the military and academic phases of the education of our young men in order to preserve a proper balance.

While major emphasis will continue to be given to the Reserve-Officer-Training programs presently established, there are certain other areas in which colleges may be of service. One of these is providing courses for military personnel stationed at nearby military installations. Men at such camps—even at a distance of 50 miles—are being encouraged to continue their college education during off-duty time. They may attend evening classes on the college campus, or the college may establish classrooms in buildings at the military installation and send instructors there. Institutions should consult with the information and education officer at the base. Major problems include amount of credit allowed for extension courses, or possible classification of such work as being "in residence," since men are interested in obtaining degrees. The top command in each branch of the

¹ Based on the findings of Group 11 of the Conference. Analyst was J. J. O'Donnell, Captain, USN, Department of Defense; chairman was G. D. Humphrey, University of Wyoming; consultants were W. A. Knapp, Purdue University, and William J. McGlothlin, Board of Control for Southern Regional Education; consultant on public relations was T. R. Johnston, Purdue University.

military service is definitely interested in raising the education level of the men—both officers and enlisted—in that particular branch of the service. If, as J. Kenneth Little of the University of Wisconsin expressed it, we continue to mobilize "to deter an all-out war" campus military programs, other than those already mentioned, together with the correspondence work conducted under USAFI, will probably be few in number and of a highly specialized type. For instance, it appears likely that a limited number of persons in uniform will be assigned to area and language study in institutions which have such specialized courses. Otherwise, it has been pointed out that the services are required by law to utilize fully all federal facilities before they can use college facilities. It is not considered feasible or desirable to attempt to combine military and academic training by changing a college campus into an armed camp. Neither are new types of R.O.T.C. units being contemplated, since under full mobilization, if such should be necessary, the Army would probably have the R.O.T.C. units train basic second lieutenants, with specialization to come after the student has entered active service.

A part of the problem of providing for campus military programs is the problem of public and student relations, since it is extremely important that the colleges which have R.O.T.C. programs should not take on the aspect of being havens in which young men can escape from their draft boards. Here the institutions have a responsibility in selecting and retaining only *bona-fide* students. Such students should also be protected from any stigma which may, through ignorance on the part of the general public, be attached to them. To this end, it may be pointed out that they are deferring rather than avoiding active service. It must also be borne in mind that the R.O.T.C. programs have not been devised for the special benefit of the individual student or of the college. They exist rather as the best-known method of providing for the well-educated leaders who are vital both in modern warfare and as citizens in a free democracy.

The colleges have an important role in

the total national picture, and it is just as important that that role should not be misunderstood. Spokesmen for the military have stated that they do not wish to approach educators and ask for a truncated or watered-down program. College administrators may make their major contribution to the present effort by preserving rather than altering standards. Captain J. J. O'Donnell, Chairman of the Committee on Education Liaison for the Department of Defense, observes that "it is prudent to see that normal activities, particularly those which are of great value to the nation, are not unduly disturbed. Any plans which are made should be of a type which we can live with without too much discomfort, for a long time, if necessary."

Such being the case, the most desirable atmosphere in which the college can serve the military is that which obtains at the present time, namely, an atmosphere in which the autonomy of each is preserved. The advisory panel to the Civilian Components Policy Board, which was set up last fall, provides an excellent means whereby college and military leaders may aid each other in mutual cooperation. This panel is comprised of one representative from each branch of the armed services and 13 educators selected by the heads of regional-accrediting agencies. It makes recommendations for general basic policies. This type of planning, carried on by joint military and civilian boards, is generally recognized as the best method of achieving education and military objectives. Such cooperation was well illustrated at the sixth annual National Conference on Higher Education, during which representatives of the armed forces made a fine contribution to the deliberations of educators.

Such is the spirit in which the problem of providing for campus military programs must be approached. It is conceded that, if the conflict comes, America will win it, not because of our superior numbers, but rather because of our superior education and military training. There is no cause now to be stampeded into adopting a catch-as-catch-can campus military program. Only carefully laid plans can lead to an integration and correlation of these two phases of the education of our young men.

REPORT OF GROUP 12

Financing Private and Church-Related Colleges¹

HARVEY L. TURNER
Hillsdale College

PRIVATE and church-related colleges have demonstrated their worth as a significant and essential part of the American system of higher education. These institutions have rendered a service far beyond what their financial resources could be expected to have made possible. They save taxpayers huge sums in capital outlays and current operations for thousands of students who would be added to the already overburdened tax-supported colleges and universities, were it not for the private and church-related colleges. The abnormal fluctuations in enrollments for the past decade, together with the anticipated severe disruptions now and for the next three to five years, place these colleges in the most pressing financial circumstances. Every legitimate effort must be exerted, therefore, to keep them solvent and to continue their essential service to the present and future of our way of life.

The crux of the matter may be stated briefly in the form of two questions: (1) How can these institutions cut costs, still maintain decent standards, improve their services, and conserve their facilities for the greater demands to be expected of them in the years ahead? (2) How may they secure more funds for meeting operating expenses?

Cutting costs. Costs can be cut by better business methods, through centralized purchasing, by carefully itemized records and reports severely scrutinized by proper authority, and by constant alertness to make sure that all facilities are used most effectively. Voluntary services in minor tasks by students and staff should be encouraged to save the cost of hired help. Many colleges can well afford to place less emphasis upon intercollegiate athletics and thus effect savings, because expenses exceed in-

come in athletics in all but a very small number of larger universities. Careful re-examination of the basic purposes of the institution and trimming course offerings to the minimum necessary to attain these purposes should prove helpful in reducing costs in most colleges. Cooperation and exchange with nearby institutions and agencies in highly specialized staff, in equipment and library facilities, in elimination of needless duplication of courses should be given serious consideration and might result in material savings.

Maintaining standards. It is essential that standards be maintained. Deciding on the essentials and eliminating all else, carefully balancing the teaching and administrative loads among the staff, appealing anew to the spirit of mission in the emergency—these are some possibilities that will aid in maintaining standards. The quality factors recently announced by selective service for the deferment of college men will undoubtedly raise the level of academic performance of male students. This policy also implies an obligation on the part of the Federal Government to provide scholarship aid for those men meeting quality standards but unable financially to avail themselves of college attendance. Accrediting agencies have a responsibility to counsel with institutions and to guard academic standards, especially in the critical period through which these colleges are now passing.

Improving services. The emergency may offer opportunities for improving services. Many colleges may find service functions and facilities which may be utilized to bring in funds. Adult-education offerings, special programs for teachers in service, defense-plant and job-conversion training, civilian-defense assistance through training nurses' aids and other essential personnel, nursery schools for the children of working mothers—all these are possibilities. Such activities and services might not only help tide over the emergency, but could prove desirable additions to the long-range program. If well done, they most certainly

¹ Based on the findings of Group 12 of the Conference. Analyst was T. L. Hungate, Teachers College, Columbia University; chairman was Charles J. Turck, Macalester College; consultant was John D. Millet, Commission on Financing Higher Education; consultant on public relations was Willard Collins, David Lipscomb College.

will gain friends and supporters for the college.

Conserving facilities. Physical facilities of college institutions cannot be put in "moth balls" for the duration; ways must be found to use them to advantage. Administrative and instructional personnel must be conserved and improved. Now is the appropriate time for younger faculty members whose services may not be needed, to continue their graduate work. Every effort should be made to encourage such further graduate study through scholarships and fellowships to those needing such aid, from both private and public sources. Governmental agencies, learned societies, local, state, and national religious organizations, and foundations should be encouraged to support such scholarships and fellowships. The most valuable asset any college has is its administrative and instructional staff. They must be conserved and improved for service in these private and church-related colleges.

How secure more funds? Each institution has its peculiar clientele, procedures, and purposes for which it can best secure funds. Efforts must be intensified to tell the story effectively and personally through every available means. Dramatization of the services and needs of these institutions to alumni and to parents of present and former students, the making of new friends—these are aspects of a superb "selling

job" that must be done. To do this well requires much time and attention of the head of the institution, assisted by board members, alumni, and friends. There is an apparent trend toward employment of an assistant to the president to give expert help in public relations and fund raising. Short, intensive drives are giving way to long-range planning with strategic peaks here and there to capitalize on psychological factors, such as anniversaries, new programs, or emergency needs. Professional fund-raising organizations may be helpful if carefully chosen and allowed time to build the campaign, but such help is expensive.

Cooperative efforts by institutions having natural organic relationships are developing here and there and offer considerable promise of success. This is especially true of the colleges having the same denominational origin and loyalty. Several states are experimenting with joint approaches to business and industry for operating expenses, with varying success. Proper exploitation of the natural partnership between private enterprise in business and private enterprise in higher education could mean much to private colleges. Promotion of bequests, annuities, and other special devices hold possibilities not yet realized fully. All must be done after careful thought and planning and in such manner as to maintain the integrity of the college.

REPORT OF GROUP 13 Financing Public Colleges¹

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Indiana University

THE three great problems of higher education today have been described as "money," "money," and "money." Contrary to some popular beliefs, the statement has as many elements of truth for the public colleges and universities as for the private institutions. State legislature after state legislature this year was unable to meet the full requests of the institutions dependent on state support. Situations of

similar nature have been reported by municipal colleges.

Primarily, the financial problem for the public colleges arises from the mounting costs of government plus the steadily increasing obligations assumed by government at public demand. Most state governments are running out of money. Surpluses built up during World-War-II years have been or are being exhausted. Expenditures of state- and local-government units are exceeding income.

The situation calls for studies of the tax structures of states and municipalities.

¹ Based on the findings of Group 13 of the Conference. Analyst was Leo M. Chamberlain, University of Kentucky; chairman was T. G. Sexton, Oklahoma State Regents for Higher Education.

Many of the tax structures are antiquated and inadequate. Studies should be made looking toward modifications necessary to meet both present and probable future needs. Public education generally, and higher education particularly, should join with those who are moving to bring about such tax studies. Public colleges have on their staffs experts qualified to make such studies. The colleges should make these staff members available to bring to light information necessary to the increased effectiveness of institutional administration.

To go forward rather than backward public higher education must be better financed than it is at present. It can be better financed only through more widespread public support. The increase in public support will come only through greater public understanding. Most state-supported institutions are seeking to bring about this greater understanding among all segments of the public. It must be recognized, however, as a continuing, all-inclusive, and long-range program. Tax dollars cannot be expected to flow to the public institution that hides the light of its achievements behind ivy walls. There can be no substitute for complete understanding on the part of the taxpayer who pays the bill and the legislator who votes the appropriations.

The present financial problems of public colleges require constant study of methods to effect economies without lowering academic standards. Though the public institutions of higher education have maintained a high level of good management in financial operation, there is room for improvement. Those responsible for the administration of these institutions should as public trustees examine continually the elements of their institutional structures. Are too many courses being offered? Is content in the various fields being spread too thin? Is there unnecessary and undemanded duplication with sister institutions? Can cooperative programs, particularly in graduate and professional fields, be arranged with other institutions, both public and private? In these and other ways lie opportunities for more efficient use of public funds.

Interinstitutional cooperation in the making of appropriation requests may be counted upon to pay financial dividends and to solve financial problems. Available tax funds no longer permit institutions,

dependent on a common treasury, to compete for appropriations. Such institutions must coordinate their appropriation requests and join together in behalf of these requests or be faced with coordination imposed by higher nonacademic authority.

Further study may be given with financial profit to regional cooperation among public and other institutions of higher education. Training in some of the specialties should be arranged through cooperation and may well extend beyond state borders. Attention is called to the achievements of the Board of Control for Southern Regional Education.

Increases in student fees should not be utilized in solving current financial problems. The raising of fees to meet rising operational costs is contrary to the theory and the principles of freedom of educational opportunities on which public higher education is based. Such action adds another obstacle in the way of many able high-school students denied the opportunity to go to college by reason of finances. Moreover, it will not in most instances provide any real solution of the institutional problem.

A program of federal scholarships, such as that now being proposed, may well receive the support of those associated with public higher education. It would be an investment in the conservation of human resources, equally justified with the present federal spending for conservation of natural resources. Such a program is imperative as a part of any plan for deferment of selected college students. Under any selective-deferment plan distinctions and inequality of treatment must not be permitted among students of equal ability but unequal financial resources.

Relevant to the problem of financing public colleges is the matter of fiscal supervision on the part of the state or other governing units. Using the arguments of alleged economy and advancing theories of government, state departments of finance, or comparable departments, for some time have been increasing the degree of their control over institutional purchasing, accounting, and business management. In most instances no real economy is being effected, and the results otherwise are detrimental to the effective operation of the state colleges and universities. Institutions of higher learning must, along with all state

agencies, be held accountable for their expenditures of state monies. It does not follow, however, that detailed direction is either necessary or desirable. Higher education is a specialized business and a large degree of fiscal independence is essential

to its efficient operation. The creeping paralysis of state fiscal control needs to be halted, the trend reversed, and the public colleges and universities given the largest measure of autonomy consistent with wise management.

REPORT OF GROUP 14

Meeting Emergency Problems in College-Business Management¹

H. H. BROOKS

Coe College

MEETING the emergency problems in college-and-university-business management is nothing new to those officers responsible for this particular division in their institutions. Since December 7, 1941, there has been the ever-increasing number of situations, arising almost daily, that have to be resolved in a manner that will satisfy the governing boards of institutions and in a way that will enable colleges and universities to continue their service to the youth of the nation. Many of these problems can rightfully be classified as emergency matters; however, many others that are so classified are not problems of an emergency nature. They are so classified, not excusably, because of the lack of long-range planning and foresight of those responsible for our institutions' day-to-day and year-to-year management.

The business management of our colleges and universities, almost since the beginning of World War I, has been plagued with constant changes and new situations. The problems of today, although rightfully considered emergency, in reality are not new.

Business management is immediately brought face-to-face with the following general problems, which are by no means all but seem to be of major importance: (1) priorities; (2) the effects of pending legislation concerning the total manpower situation of the nation; (3) contractual relations with the government, can not only

present but future contracts, covering many different areas of service to be furnished by colleges and universities to the country; (4) needed new construction and other facilities to serve the needs of the country now and in the near future when our institutions will be called upon and expected to educate and train the large influx of students into our institutions; (5) internal operational problems whereby the resources of the colleges and universities can be best put to use.

Priorities. Regulation 4 and Regulation 2, as amended, of the National Production Authority have suddenly become the necessary tools by which all colleges and universities need to keep their institutions running. Priority rating DO-97 has been assigned to educational institutions by NPA. This rating is equal to any other rating assigned but can be used to purchase only maintenance repairs and operating supply items not to exceed 25 per cent of the amount spent in 1950 for MRO, or the fiscal year ended nearest December 31, 1950. Once DO-97 is used, all further MRO purchases are counted against the quota. It is not extendable by the vendor. In case restricted materials are needed, the authority must be obtained from the Federal Security Agency—Department of Education. College-business management must know the present regulations in detail and keep up with all new regulations and directives in order to keep their institutions going. Business management *must* plan carefully, as there are not enough materials to go around and educational requests must be reasonable. The philosophy of NPA at the moment seems to be: first, take care of the military needs of the country and,

¹ Based on the findings of Group 14 of the Conference. Analyst was Charles W. Hoff, Municipal University of Omaha; chairman was Trent C. Root, Southern Methodist University; consultant was J. L. McCaskill, National Conference for Mobilization of Education.

second, consider the importance of institutional operations.

Manpower legislation. The recent directives from Washington as to the deferment of males of military age interpolated into estimated figures seem to reveal that there will be approximately 1,300,000 males in colleges and universities in the fall of 1951. There seems to have been very little protest from the people to the Congress of the United States on the proposed Universal-Military-Training bill. This group believes this to be of utmost concern to the nation and considered and passed the following resolution to the General Resolutions Committee of this Conference:

WHEREAS, the United States Congress is about to adopt a new kind of universal-military-service act, and

WHEREAS, attention of the public has been concentrated on age of induction into the military program, with the result that many citizens have lost sight of the implications of permanent military training and service upon our long-range way of life,

BE IT THEREFORE RESOLVED: That this Conference go on record with the Congress of the United States as strongly favoring the proposition that there should be definite terminal dates established for both the selective-service and the military-training phases in any bill that may be enacted, at which time such legislation must be reviewed by Congress and re-enacted if it is to be extended.

Contractual relations. There is continuing concern upon the part of business management of our institutions in the area of contractual relationships with the government, not only on present research and other contracts as to allowances for adequate overhead costs on programs in our institutions, but also on future contracts for military units and other governmental projects. Business management of our institutions must have adequate information available as to costs and facilities and be ready to undertake needed programs when called upon.

New construction. There is much need for new construction, but present restrictions seem to forestall any immediate solution to the problem. In order to get education properly considered from this standpoint, Group 14 passed the following resolution to be submitted to the General Resolutions Committee:

WHEREAS, the Congress of the United States has, by law, recognized the important service that is expected of institutions of higher education by allocating large segments of the manpower of the nation to such institutions for additional general education prior to induction into the military force, and

WHEREAS, in addition to such educational and training programs, many such institutions are heavily engaged in research and development programs for the various units of the military forces, now,

BE IT THEREFORE RESOLVED: That representations be made to the appropriate federal agencies through the proper contact agencies, that institutions of higher education be designated as defense industry and fully and equally eligible for all special priorities and allocations.

Internal problems. There are a myriad of internal problems of operations confronting business management where the financial resources of the institution can be conserved by detailed attention to many, many small and large items constantly—not the least of which in many colleges is the drain on the institution's finances by athletic programs inconsistent with other educational programs. Group 14 passed the following resolution to be submitted to the General Resolutions Committee:

WHEREAS, the administration of college athletic programs has reflected upon the morals and academic integrity of institutions of higher education throughout the United States of America, and

WHEREAS, in this year of difficult budget-making, the excessive costs of athletic programs are now bleeding from the general college programs, in many institutions, funds sorely needed for faculty salaries and maintenance of the academic departments,

BE IT THEREFORE RESOLVED: That all college presidents and boards of control be urged to review their inter-collegiate athletic operations carefully, at once, in the interest of: (1) building confidence of the faculties in honest and effective financial administration of such institutions; (2) maintaining the faith of our citizens in the moral integrity of American institutions of higher education; (3) preserving our colleges and universities as institutions where students can build character by seeing it practiced in athletic administration.

Many other problems facing business management in the everyday routine must be considered and solved, sometimes on an emergency basis but always with the best interests of the fundamental purpose of the

institution in mind. This was stated extremely well by Robert B. Stewart, Vice President of Purdue University, at the University of Chicago Institute on College Administration in 1947 when he said, "All administration must operate courageously and with sympathetic understanding in order that the whole organization may serve its purpose most usefully. It is true that essentially nothing can be accomplished in an institution unless it can be paid for, yet those in charge of the administration of funds and direct business matters must keep in mind constantly that the only justification for money and properties in a college or university is to produce a maximum educational result. The definition of the educational result is not the function of the business officer. However, since it is his business to gear the use of material things to bring about the accomplishment of the desired educational result, he should be a

party in the educational council and participate freely in its deliberation." Mr. Stewart continued, "However, while I am adamant in my belief in the single top administrative head, I am equally adamant in my belief that there must be one and only one officer in charge of the business affairs of an institution if it is to have the most effective administration. While this one should be 'under the president' as it were, he should also be present and participate at all board meetings, except executive sessions, of course, with recognized and full freedom to discuss problems and debate policies according to his best judgment and conviction. Once action is taken by the board, however, he should not thereafter be free nor inclined to thwart the president in carrying out the decision or policy. If he cannot and does not then support the president's desires, he should part company with his position."

REPORT OF GROUP 15

The Control and Management of Contract Research in Higher Education¹

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TRADITIONALLY, colleges and universities have been chiefly interested in basic or fundamental research undertaken solely for the purpose of extending the frontiers of knowledge. Such fundamental research has ultimately produced practical developments of incalculable value. The development of background and applied research has, until recently, been considered as outside the normal province of the college and university. During and since World War II, however, applied research in university laboratories has grown to be "big business." This is illustrated by the fact that reliable data show approximately \$13,000,000 of government funds was spent for applied research in univer-

sity laboratories in 1940 while the Bureau of the Budget reported that in 1949-1950 more than \$100,000,000 was spent on government-sponsored research. A similar increase has taken place in the contract research undertaken in collegiate institutions for private business.

This tremendous development of contract research in institutions of higher education is not an unmixed blessing. Many problems and dangers are involved. Those responsible for the management and control of contract research are fully aware of problems affecting the basic functions of the university, professional personnel, administrative organization and techniques, and the effects of selective research upon all colleges and universities.

Many responsible people believe that applied research has no place in a university, that such investigations should be undertaken by other agencies. This attitude is, in part, a reflection of the fear that contract research cannot be fitted into the

¹ Based on the findings of Group 15 of the Conference. Analyst was Bernard B. Watson, United States Office of Education; chairman was E. J. Workman, New Mexico School of Mines; consultant was R. M. Hixon, Iowa State College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts; consultant on public relations was James W. Armsey, Illinois Institute of Technology.

traditional academic pattern which leaves the investigator free to undertake his own problem in his own way and to publish his findings without restriction.

Other responsible persons contend that the university has a social responsibility to extend the findings of pure research into procedures of practical value. They feel that a university should serve the practical needs of those who support it and that, especially in these days, applied research must be carried on in the interest of national security. Apparently many institutions have accepted the second point of view.

If an institution carries on research under contract, it must be so organized that these activities are operated effectively and efficiently. These results can be achieved best through one director and one coordinating group representative of the various academic areas interested in such activities. Although individual staff members or groups should originate research proposals, only one person should represent the institution in contacts with outside agencies and in the actual details of contract writing. This centralization is necessary to maintain consistency and to avoid ineffective duplication and negotiation. The basic functions of this organization should be to encourage, facilitate, and coordinate contract research and to maintain proper balance between the several areas of interest.

A second basic principle is that contract research must not be imposed upon any faculty member. In some institutions pressures have been exerted to secure faculty participation. Such impositions are frowned upon as contrary to good personnel practice and the freedom of the faculty to carry on research in their own interest.

Two factors tend to increase the rate of payment for services to persons employed on research contracts. These are: (1) the scarcity of qualified research workers and (2) the fact that salary payments can be covered in full by the contractor so that the institution loses nothing. Despite pressures, it is not considered good practice to pay faculty personnel higher rates for contract-research services than for regular instructional services.

Members of the staff engaged in both teaching and contract research should have teaching loads reduced in proportion to the time spent on research. If this principle is not adhered to, one activity or the other

will eventually suffer and demands will appear for "overload" pay.

Concern has been expressed over the fact that fewer than 200 of our more than 1800 colleges and universities have carried on contract research through agencies of the Federal Government. There has been a strong tendency, too, for contracts of all types to be given to certain large institutions. The effects of such concentration may be disastrous to many small institutions. These colleges have a very important educational function to perform and from them have come some of the best-prepared undergraduates. At the same time faculties in these institutions are becoming depleted, for well-prepared personnel eager to do research are being drawn into larger institutions with extensive research programs and higher rates of pay.

To offset this danger, it is urged that every effort should be made by the larger institutions and by government agencies to channel projects to smaller colleges. This might be accomplished through subcontracts and, where feasible, by assigning staff members in smaller institutions to work on segments of larger contracts. It should be noted, however, that the smaller colleges must make their research capacities known before such plans can be effected.

A fundamental problem in the management of research programs is to maintain a desirable balance between the various areas of investigation and study represented within the institution. Especially notable is the imbalance in most higher institutions in the direction of the biological, and most commonly, the physical sciences. The social sciences and the humanities have tended to be overshadowed and often neglected because they have lacked recognition and funds. Institutions should make every effort to secure suitable contracts in these areas and to stimulate research activities in them through every available means. Such support and interest will go far to insure the national welfare in war or peace.

Although there were spirited discussion and some lack of agreement on several points, Group 15 took formal action only on one subject—classified research. Because such action was taken it is quoted in the following paragraph.

Group 15 of the sixth annual National Conference on Higher Education recognizes the urgent need for continued

development of fundamental research and teaching in colleges and universities. Because such teaching and research constitutes the basic function of colleges and universities, it is strongly recommended that "classified" research not be undertaken by these institutions except in case of war or declared national emergency.

The group further recommends that institutions not accept "classified" work done by students when submitted to meet academic or thesis requirements for advanced degrees. The group strongly believes that this policy contributes most to education and to the nation's ultimate security.

REPORT OF GROUP 17

Strengthening the Public Relations of Higher Education¹

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GOOD public relations in higher education will result from having an excellent institutional program and in getting before the public the facts of this program. Institutions of higher learning need effective public-relations programs to build understanding, cooperation, support, and prestige. Through every available means of communication, public appreciation is built, aims are made understandable, and friends are made and kept. In higher education an awareness of its value for the good of society is of primary importance.

To insure a satisfactory public-relations program, its purposes, philosophies, and objectives must be carefully thought through and understood. On such a foundation a well-planned program with sound principles and policies, effectively administered, will have far-reaching and valuable results. It is an ever-changing, continuous process based on truth and logic.

There should be total individual participation based on justified pride of accomplishment. Each individual, from the telephone girl, the receptionist, and the grounds' man to the dean or the president makes a definite impression through what he says and does. Individual effort should, however, clear through a channel directed by a public-relations official who will coordinate the program. This official should keep internal and external communication flowing freely so that there will be no need of fighting fires of disapproval resulting

from lack of understanding because of inadequate information.

The recognized publics of any college or university may be grouped as the external and internal, with the possibility of a connecting group. Students, faculty, nonacademic employees, and the board of trustees certainly may be classified as internal. In the external public are included the local community, visitors to the campus, telephone callers, other schools, government groups, service clubs, other organizations, the radio, and the press. The connecting group if listed separately might well include parents, alumni, and prospective students.

Techniques. Many techniques are used in reaching the different publics. Some techniques found to have been effective include: meetings with groups of varying sizes, i.e., assemblies, leadership retreats, president's council; press releases to home-town and school newspapers; newsletters; house organs; alumni publications; letters and publications to parents; school catalogs; pictorial bulletins; student handbooks; campus guides; miscellaneous bulletins; advisory councils; faculty and student participation in programs; faculty and student participation in community organizations and affairs; recognition of work well done, years of service, honors; movies, film strips, and slides. There are many other techniques which have been discussed in publications covering this subject.

Evaluation. While there must be constant evaluation of the public-relations program, occasional critical analysis is highly desirable. Evaluation may be made from within or without. It should begin with what people think. The difference between

¹ Based on the findings of Group 17 of the Conference. Analyst was Joseph E. Gibson, Tulane University; chairman was Robert F. Chandler, Jr., University of New Hampshire; consultant was Stewart Harral, University of Oklahoma.

what people think and what is being done determines the size of the problem. Surveys may be cooperative or at random. They may be directed by sociologists, psychologists, or survey specialists.

Recognition. It is encouraging to note the growing awareness of the importance of public relations in higher education as evidenced by: (1) inclusion of a working group and consultants in other groups in the meetings of the National Conference on Higher Education; (2) activities of the joint committee on public relations of the American College Public Relations Association and the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education; (3) establishment of a national office of the American College Public Relations Association; (4) definite increase in the number of public-relations officers appointed to important positions in colleges and universities; (5) increasing appearance of public-relations topics on programs of regional and national organizations in higher education.

Problem areas. It is generally recognized that there remain many problem areas in the field of public relations in higher education. Many times administrators and faculty members are not aware of the value of such activities. It is not sufficiently recognized that public appreciation is built on public information which brings understanding. In cases where a definite program of public relations has not been established, a beginning should be made in that direction. Too often those having the greatest influence for good in the program are so close to the situation that self-evaluation becomes difficult because it is not easy to see one's own faults or faults of the program being directed. Those especially interested in or directing public relations must know how to work with people. They must be tactful, appreciative of any information or suggestions even though at times

it is not possible to use such contributions, and above all, they must be truthful. They must listen to the good and bad and must not suppress news. It must be remembered that when undesirable information is no longer news, then real trouble is sure to be on the door step. Although it is at times difficult to reduce the amount of publicity in some areas, some semblance of balance may be maintained by increasing and emphasizing other news. Where attempts at evaluation are made, it is found that criteria are very intangible and values are difficult to measure. There is too much guessing and not enough polling. Many house organs and advisory councils are inadequate and ineffective. Publications, especially many college catalogs, could be made much more readable and understandable. The morale of faculty and students is too often overlooked. Channels for receiving information from and of giving it to faculty and students are very inadequate. In considering the problem areas, higher education may well profit from the results obtained by industry and the public schools.

Although each institution of higher learning has its individual purpose and philosophy, the major purpose of all higher education must be kept constantly in mind. As surely as trained leaders are essential to national welfare and security, the education of those leaders is the responsibility of higher education. If we are to meet the challenge of educating for leadership which will provide the greatest service to the greatest number of people, the program of public relations in higher education on the national level becomes a paramount issue. For each college and university as well as for the nation there must be an immediate and a long-term program. Political leaders and leaders in education must work in unity toward the common purpose, for through understanding we may hope to secure national security and world peace.

REPORT OF GROUP 18

Cooperation in Accreditation¹

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THE trends in the direction of a proliferation of accrediting agencies threaten to impose upon institutions increasing costs both in financial outlay and in labor in preparing reports. There is duplication and overlapping in the nature of data requested. Some persons feel, however, that the financial cost is not especially an important factor. They say they would be glad to pay more for "less."

There are difficulties with regard to the evaluation of credits earned in foreign schools. Accrediting agencies should give attention to this problem. Regional-accrediting agencies should give attention to the problem of evaluation of graduate work. They should also evaluate the work of theological schools.

Good accreditation calls for more than merely a check on whether standards have been met. An institution may meet all the standards and yet when fully evaluated may be found educationally inadequate.

The question of whether the upgrading of institutions should be an objective of accreditation and whether too much effort of this kind is being made led to the consensus that accrediting agencies should try to be of help to both accredited and nonaccredited institutions.

One of the weaknesses in present accreditation practices is the inconsistency found in successive evaluations, due possibly to different personnel on the successive evaluating committees. The solution would seem to lie in broadening the base of evaluation procedure by the democratic method of bringing into the process the institution itself, the visiting committee, and the general over-all evaluation by the accrediting agency.

Another question is whether standards should be single or multiple. The idea underlying multiple standards is that stand-

ards should differ according to type and expressed philosophy and aims of each institution. Closely related to this is the question of whether there should be grades or degrees of accreditation. The consensus tended to favor the single standard, institutions being classified as either accredited or not accredited. When the point was made that in vocational and professional education, the public must be protected from professional incompetents, the point was also made that the same principle applies in the field of general education.

The democratic process in accreditation calls for the avoidance of the "police-state" type of setting up of standards. If some new criterion is to be proposed for use in accrediting, the institutions should be polled with regard to its adoption.

One of the indirect types of accreditation can be found in the offices of foreign consulates when they certify to the rating of foreign institutions whose students bring credits from them to this country.

Some group members felt that there is injustice in the dual system of accrediting in the South. It was the consensus that there is a trend toward improving this situation.

Sometimes regionally accredited institutions in one part of the country do not honor credits earned by armed-forces personnel in accredited institutions in other parts of the country. The group submitted to the General Resolutions Committee of the Conference a resolution dealing with this problem. It was adopted by the Conference as Resolution Number XIV.

Group analyst, Norman Burns, Secretary to the Commission on Colleges and Universities of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, presented to the group an informative review of the situation up to the present and offered significant, constructive suggestions for the further improvement of accrediting techniques of regional agencies. He suggested the use in accreditation of self-evaluation by institutions and a more democratic and broadened base in the accredita-

¹ Based on the findings of Group 18 of the Conference. Analyst was Norman Burns, North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools; chairman was E. R. Jobe, Mississippi Institutions of Higher Learning; consultant was H. B. Allman, Indiana University.

tion process. Anyone interested in the American development of accreditation, its present status, and constructive criticisms, will wish to read Mr. Burns' paper on "Cooperation in Accreditation." The group gave expression to the belief that the concept of self-evaluation should be emphasized.

There seems to be no ready answer to the problem of what to do about the overdevelopment of accrediting agencies. The group looks hopefully toward the corrective

work that may lie ahead for the American Council on Education, the National Commission on Accreditation, and the National Committee of Regional Accrediting Agencies. Possibly experience has already accumulated that may point to the way out. From time to time accrediting agencies have, by means of cooperation, absorbed departmental and professional pressure groups, permitting them to work through the agency rather than to set up independently and to operate independently.

REPORT OF GROUP 19

Integrating High-School and College Education¹

CLARENCE VON ESCHEN

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THE problem of integrating high-school and college education is of vital concern to the best educational interests of American youth. The problem may be studied from four points of view: (1) improving relationships between high-school and college personnel, through mutual understanding; (2) establishing sound-admissions requirements; (3) articulating the high-school and college curriculum; (4) correcting deficiencies in the preparation of college freshmen.

Improving relationships. A major factor in the existing gap between college and secondary-school personnel is lack of mutual understanding on such problems as purposes of education, characteristics of students being served, the curriculum, procedures of instruction and evaluation, and the social milieu of the institution.

Better integration of high-school and college education is basically dependent on securing a greater mutual understanding than presently exists on the part of college and high-school personnel. This understanding can best be nurtured through exchange of information. Most effective exchange of information comes about on a person-to-person or individual level where in college and high-school personnel at

both the administrative and instructional levels come to grips with common and specific institutional problems.

Some concrete proposals for exchanging information and studying common problems are: (1) interviewing, by mutual planning and action, college and high-school classroom teachers and administrators to discover common problems; (2) encouraging and arranging for intervisitation by classroom-teaching personnel; (3) arranging for joint departmental and interdepartmental study and discussion groups and workshops wherein effort is made to (a) state educational objectives, (b) state these outcomes in terms of behavior with reference to specific skills, attitudes, and appreciations, (c) determine the best possible means of realizing these goals, and (d) devise ways of determining competence in these areas; (4) appointing college-classroom teachers to spend part time visiting high schools, later returning to the college and conducting discussion groups with college personnel; (5) establishing joint committees on sectional, regional, and national levels; (6) arranging joint discussion of admissions policies, such discussion ultimately leading to many problems not strictly of an admissions' nature and involving principals, guidance directors, college administrators, and college instructors; (7) arranging occasional classroom-teacher-exchange instruction; (8) offering testing services followed by conferences; (9) reporting grades earned in college to the high school;

¹ Based on the findings of Group 19 of the Conference. Analyst was J. Andrew Holley, Oklahoma Agricultural and Mechanical College; chairman was Albert E. Meder, Jr., Rutgers University; consultant was Edwin P. Adkins, Glenville State College.

(10) sending to the high schools reports on work of excellence done in college; (11) reporting to the high-school principal final action on all applications for admission—rejection as well as acceptance.

College and high-school relationships can be improved through viewing education as a continuous process. A greater identification of college teachers with the teaching profession provides an opportunity to view education as a continuum, thus shading the existing line of demarcation that currently tends to set off one educational level from the other. Many of the shortcomings of education are understandable when viewed genetically, thus leading to greater sympathy and respect for problems at all educational levels. College-classroom teachers should be encouraged to become members of state associations and to participate in the work of the associations. State associations must give greater attention to providing opportunities for joint participation in more worthwhile activities than often found at present. Progress is reported in this area.

Entrance requirements. There is much dissatisfaction with the present "Carnegie Unit" as either a measure of educational accomplishment or indication of preparation for further education. A careful study of even the objectives of several courses in a given area reveals a striking diversity of purposes. This is true also with respect to subject-matter, topics covered, and methods of evaluation and marking. One course in tenth-grade English may and does differ widely from another course (even within the same school) in tenth-grade English; one course in tenth-grade biology may and does differ from another course in tenth-grade biology. There may be sound reason for this diversity, but definition of credit in terms of the "Carnegie Unit" provides meager evidence or assurance of common specific competence. Entrance to college on such an indeterminate basis is obviously unsound. Requirements for college entrance should be stated in terms of competencies which careful research and observation indicate are essential for college success rather than in terms of units which are neither comparable nor definitive.

There should be opportunity for post-high-school education for all who have ability and interest. This implies differentiated college and other post-high-school programs for which objectives should be

defined. Standards should be related to objectives, and requirements should then be realistically relevant to these objectives and standards. Opportunity implies not only suitable educational programs, but also removal of financial barriers.

Articulation. The problem of articulation applies to the above-average as well as to the average and the below-average student. It is a matter of viewing education as a continuous process.

This problem seems hopelessly complex in view of the variety of existing forms of subject-matter organization ranging from the traditional organization to the various forms of providing general education, core courses, life-adjustment programs, and others. Fortunately, however, the solution is not as difficult as it would seem, for if specific competencies are identified and developed, the form of subject-matter organization and types of learning experience are comparatively irrelevant.

Articulation would be improved through joint high-school and college action by defining in terms of competencies those skills and abilities which colleges and schools believe to be essential for continued and unimpeded education. Among these competencies are adequacy in (1) verbal ability, (2) quantitative ability, (3) communication skills, (4) study skills and habits, (5) motivation, (6) critical thinking, (7) problem solving, (8) ability to collect and organize relevant data, (9) personal development and social competence, (10) knowledge of vocational requirements, (11) knowledge of American institutions and history in terms of broad movements.

It is not enough to state these competencies in general terms. They must be carefully analyzed and finally stated in terms of specific behavior. The result will be a detailed statement or listing of such definite behavior, by way of illustration, as ability to read a line graph. Once the competencies have been clearly isolated and so stated in behavior terms, ways must be devised for determining the degree to which the competencies exist and the level of competencies needed for continued and unimpeded education.

Atypical preparation. Some beginning college students will inevitably have certain deficiencies. These fall into such areas as general achievement, basic skills, work

habits, motivation, health, and social development. The number and degree of deficiencies may be reduced by stating objectives in terms of specific skills and behaviors. Such statements will give specific direction to developing competencies. Ef-

forts to correct and prevent deficiencies can be made through clinics of various types, organization of various remedial courses and workshops, and closer cooperation between high schools and colleges in planning a continuous curriculum.

REPORT OF GROUP 20

Emerging Patterns of Higher Education at the Community Level¹

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THERE is wide recognition today on the part of most colleges of a responsibility to the local communities in which they are located. This responsibility is not limited to tax-supported institutions, but extends to nontax-supported schools performing a public function. The degree of responsibility and the kind of community service offered depend upon the nature of the school and its place in the community.

In all institutions considering themselves "community colleges" and in other colleges which accept community responsibilities, new educational patterns are emerging. These patterns reflect efforts on the part of the colleges to integrate school and community. Such integration is based on a recognition of community needs in curriculum, in programming, in counseling, in specific community services, and in the coordinating of the various community agencies having educational and cultural objectives. The community's college keeps abreast of the changing needs of the community through continuing surveys. It utilizes advisory committees, various religious, service, and civic groups, and other organizations to assist it in becoming an integral part of the community.

The first, and perhaps the most significant, emerging patterns are found in curriculum modifications. These modifications are providing programs which differ from those designed to meet the academic objectives of the traditional college. While

most community colleges offer the standard collegiate programs for the young people of the community, they broaden their curricular offerings to serve the needs of the entire community including both the youth of post-high-school age and the adults of the community. They attempt to democratize post-high-school education. The broad needs of the community are interpreted to include educational experiences leading to the attainment of the functional objectives of general education (such as those listed in the Report of the President's Commission on Higher Education), programs in occupational, vocational, and semiprofessional training, and opportunities for self-improvement, both cultural and occupational, for adults. Actual course offerings aimed at meeting these needs vary widely from institution to institution. Experimentation with integrated courses, with work-study programs, and with other innovations are being carefully evaluated to determine whether or not they provide the approach which will make it possible to meet more effectively the needs of the community.

The different kinds of learning experiences, which are being developed in connection with curriculum modifications, constitute only a part of the program of community integration. Flexibility in programming is also being observed. This includes adapting offerings to the various abilities and backgrounds of students, using materials and teaching techniques that are appropriate for the age group and for the capacities of the students, and varying the length of the course or courses to a timespan that is desirable for those enrolled. In addition to the adaptation of the pro-

¹ Based on the findings of Group 20 of the Conference. Analyst was William R. Wood, United States Office of Education; chairman was J. P. Abbott, Agricultural and Mechanical College of Texas; consultant was Leland L. Medsker, Contra Costa Junior College District.

gram, consideration is also given to utilization of existing educational facilities, the working hours of the community, transportation, and the local customs.

In all effective programs for large groups of students of varied interests and abilities, expert guidance and other personnel services are essential. Popularization of education at the post-high-school and adult levels is dependent in no small degree on these services which introduce students to various possibilities of development, which help them to understand their own abilities and goals, and which assist them in planning appropriate programs. While in the past student-personnel programs have confined their services to students and to prospective students, there is a growing feeling among some institutions that the personnel facilities, including testing, guidance, and counseling, should be extended to any member of the community who desires such service. Again, there is growing tendency to continued personnel services for students after the completion of their programs. This recognizes that the specialized services, which help students adjust to their various personal, academic, and vocational problems while in school, may very well assist the same students in making effective adjustments in later life.

The planning for integration of school and community has led to the providing of specific community services by many institutions. Among the services that are being provided are: community surveys by students and staff members to help the community understand itself, institutes for special groups, lecture and forum series planned specifically for the community, musical and dramatic presentations, art exhibits and demonstrations, and opportunities for recreation both as spectators and participants. The services of faculty members and student organizations in carrying on community projects, in servicing community groups, and in cooperating with group programs are quite generally provided.

A final step for integration is found in the college effort to coordinate the various community agencies which have educational

and cultural objectives. It is recognized that no single institution can or should provide all of these services for a community. The community college, however, is in an ideal position, as the intellectual and cultural center of the community, to become the coordinator of the various services that are available. Cooperative planning under the leadership of the community college is in many localities avoiding duplication of effort and of facilities, and is thereby making it possible to offer broader services and greater development without increasing the expenditure of funds.

While definite educational patterns have emerged at the community level, there are still many barriers to community service and many unsolved problems. State legislation governing the offerings of some public institutions, accrediting requirements of some universities and specialized agencies that are not acutely aware of community services, community apathy, and a shortage of appropriately trained faculty members who recognize the philosophy of community service and who possess qualifications to teach students as well as subject-matter, are among the many barriers to the further and more rapid development of education at the community level. Failure on the part of governmental agencies to accept programs which are adjusted to meet the needs of youth and of the community, and insistence upon the definition of higher education in terms of standard collegiate and professional programs is perhaps causing community-college administrators their most serious problem at the present time. Recognition of the problems that are involved in the integration of school and community which will result in providing sound patterns of higher education at the community level, and the conscientious efforts of administrators and faculty members in the solution of these problems constitute one of the hopeful aspects of higher education. Interest in the community level and the patterns that have already emerged to provide higher education at this level are indicative of future developments in providing for the democratization of post-high-school education.

REPORT OF GROUP 21

Revising the Curriculum in the Light of Changing World Conditions¹

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TRADITIONALLY, the college curriculum is regarded as the program of formal academic studies provided by the institution. Because of limitations of time, Group 21 discussed "the curriculum" largely in this traditional sense. It recognized, however, that the curriculum should be regarded as including all aspects of college life which contribute to the development and education of the student.

The curriculum should not be a relatively changeless program of studies; it must be continuously revised and adapted to current conditions if the colleges are to prepare students adequately for their places in a democratic society. There should be, of course, a core of material in the curriculum designed to produce certain basic understandings and appreciations which is not subject to continuous revision. The problem for the colleges is how to hold fast to the relatively stable basic values in the curriculum and at the same time make adjustments prompted by changing patterns of life and thought. Times of tension and confusion such as prevail today make curricular adjustments more important than in normal times, but also make more difficult the preservation of traditional values. The emergency requires curricular modifications to meet the short-range needs of both military and civilian agencies, for whom the colleges must provide training programs and other educational services. So long as the country remains in a period of only partial mobilization, however, the colleges must stress the continuing essentials of higher education.

Although there are common objectives and common elements in the curriculum, there need be no plan or pattern of revision common to all institutions. Each institution must consider what changes it should make in the light of its charter and tradi-

tions, its objectives and resources, its clientele and location. The determination of such changes should rest primarily with the faculty, but the opinion of students should be sought and considered. Colleges have been remiss in not bringing students into curriculum-planning. If colleges are to develop genuine appreciation of democracy on the part of students, the students must be given more opportunities to participate democratically in the life of the institution. In addition to student assistance in determining curricular changes, the cooperation of outside sources, such as appropriate business and professional groups, should be enlisted. The colleges must resist, however, the increasing outside pressures on the curriculum; they must maintain the independence and freedom of each college to determine its own curriculum.

Colleges should carry on a continuous evaluation of the curriculum. The present world situation requires that this evaluation look especially to the curriculum's contribution to an understanding and appreciation of democracy. Colleges must increasingly aim at such objectives as strengthening the democratic ideal, promoting international understanding and cooperation, stabilizing the national economy, and furthering social stability.

Because of military and related civilian requirements, higher education must produce, in far greater numbers than at present, graduates trained in the natural sciences and technological fields. But adequate emphasis must also be placed upon the humanities and the social sciences. There is grave danger that in our present crisis the colleges will concentrate their energies on the training of chemists and physicists, of doctors and engineers, whereas the greater need is for individuals with a capacity for improved human relations. A balance must be maintained in the curriculum between the sciences and technology on the one hand and the social sciences and the humanities on the other,

¹ Based on the findings of Group 21 of the Conference. Analyst was M. L. Wardell, University of Oklahoma; chairman was J. D. Messick, East Carolina Teachers College; consultant was Phillips Bradley, Syracuse University.

but in the long view, it is the latter areas which will make the greater contribution to the preservation and strengthening of our free society. The colleges, therefore, must produce increased numbers of specialists in the social sciences; they must provide an environment in which creative spirits in the arts, literature, and philosophy can develop; and they must provide educational experiences that will assist *all* students to meet intelligently the complex problems of the present and the future.

Revisions in the curriculum necessary to provide an increased flow of trained scientific and technical personnel can be readily determined and will undoubtedly be made promptly and adequately when indicated. But modifications in the curriculum directed toward producing a better-informed and more-intelligent body of citizens, as well as sufficient numbers of specialists in the social sciences and the humanities, may be more difficult to determine and accomplish. Specific modifications to achieve these objectives which colleges may consider include the following: providing instruction concerning cultures other than those in the Western European tradition, especially the study of the Soviet Union and the various Asiatic peoples; offering more comparative study of political, economic, and social institutions and theory; introducing more contemporary material into courses; improving instruction in foreign languages and increasing the number of languages taught; and teaching directly to eliminate attitudes and prejudices that lead to discriminatory practices. Increased opportunities for the exchange of students and teachers will also contribute to the desired

ends. Finally, every institution must recognize that education should be a continuing process and assume responsibility for providing some adult-education opportunities for citizens of the community.

Modifications of the curriculum such as reducing the requirements for graduation, accepting students with less preparation than completion of the usual high-school course, and accelerating the program other than by such voluntary means as summer-school attendance, are undesirable in a period of semimobilization. Less rigidity is desirable, however, in the formal requirements of the curriculum. Colleges should permit students, especially the abler ones, to progress in accordance with their capacities and achievement.

Much of the suggested revision of the curriculum will involve controversial issues. Colleges are always confronted by the problem of handling such material, but it is particularly acute in a period of confusion, tension, and fear like the present. Today the concept of academic freedom, which carries with it a recognition of academic responsibility which is frequently overlooked by both its friends and its foes, is under serious attack. But to give meaning to the college curriculum in the light of changing world conditions, there must be no administrative or other barriers to (1) including the study of all subjects relevant to an informed citizenry, (2) providing complete opportunity for the free expression of opinion on these subjects, including all viewpoints as to domestic and foreign ideas and institutions, and (3) insuring an informed discussion of these questions both in the classroom and in the community.

REPORT OF GROUP 22

Adapting Preprofessional Programs to the Conditions of Mobilization¹

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PREPROFESSIONAL programs have not escaped the impact of changes in and pressures on higher education during the past decade. World War II brought its streamlined and accelerated preprofessional courses, along with increased regimentation of curricula and students. The result was not entirely a happy one. Some fields of preprofessional study were practically eliminated or found their enrollments reduced drastically. After demobilization the professional schools were quickly filled, with a sizable number of qualified students finding it difficult, if not impossible, to gain admission.

As the group undertook to analyze some of the problems of preprofessional education during the present period of mobilization, the topics were grouped under three main headings: (1) the effect of manpower mobilization, (2) selected and specific aspects of preprofessional curricula, and (3) general education for preprofessional students.

Effect of manpower mobilization. As the armed forces built toward a goal of 3,500,000 men, many preprofessional and professional schools were expecting markedly reduced enrollments—the field of the healing arts was a notable exception. It now appears probable that the impact of current selective-service policies will have little effect upon the supply of students available for professional training and that the numbers will be adequate in most fields. In certain situations such as in the preprofessional levels of state universities, in teachers colleges, and in business schools, the reduction in enrollments may be more noticeable. Preprofessional students in the nonhealth fields will, however, be more secure in planning the completion of their

professional programs under current draft-deferment provisions which provide for continuance of education in all fields of higher learning. The effect should be salutary.

Prediction may have little value in this report, but it was noted that increased voluntary enrollment during the summer session may be expected. An increase may be expected in the number of engineering students throughout the year. Unfortunately, it appears highly improbable that the critical need for professionally trained elementary- and secondary-school teachers and nurses will be met in this period of national emergency. Improvement in both remuneration and conditions of work, expanded vocational-counseling services, and public-relations programs can aid to some extent in the alleviation of the condition.

The subject of acceleration of students continues to receive the attention of all educators. Those who contributed to this report were definite in stating that acceleration of preprofessional training is undesirable. On the other hand, there should be no extended interruption from the beginning of preprofessional education to the completion of professional training. The best interests of the nation can be served if each student contributes to mobilization with his highest skill. Therefore, professional students should complete their education before actual service in the armed forces unless the exigency of the moment makes this impossible. During partial mobilization, and even in the event of total mobilization, selection of students should remain the prerogative of the professional school, and students should be free to choose their schools.

Selected aspects of preprofessional curricula. The content of the preprofessional curriculum should be a cooperative responsibility of the preprofessional and professional faculties. Final responsibility for determining the content and for providing proper instruction should rest with

¹ Based on the findings of Group 22 of the Conference. Analyst was Harry J. Carman, Columbia College, Columbia University; chairman was Harvey H. Davis, State University of Iowa; consultant on public relations was Marvin G. Osborn, Jr., Mississippi State College.

the preprofessional college. Attempts by the latter to improve its programs necessitate broad and rather flexible requirements for entrance into professional schools. The control that some state legislatures exercise by prescribing inappropriate preprofessional courses is to be deplored.

Fundamental courses should not be designed exclusively for and taught only to preprofessional students. Some institutions have designed three separate basic courses in a given field—one for the professional student, one for the general-education student, and one for the student majoring in that field. A more desirable method would be to provide one course adequate to meet the needs of all three groups, thus enriching the basic knowledge of all students. This does not mean that all reference to professional subject-matter need be eliminated from preprofessional education. Indeed, it is recommended that a minor fraction of basic professional courses be offered as a part of preprofessional training to aid the student in early vocational decision and to provide continuity and motivation.

General education for preprofessional students. The present trend to articulate more adequately and appropriately the fields of

English, mathematics, social studies, and basic sciences as the student progresses from high school to college should be encouraged. The obligation is shared by the high school and the college, but the initiative should be taken by the latter, thus establishing a permissive situation. Furthermore, it is recommended that the values to be derived from general education should continue to be emphasized throughout college and professional school. For example, instructors in the third and fourth years of college and in professional schools should continue to stress communications skills.

Through better articulation and cooperation between all three levels—high school, preprofessional, and professional—it should be possible for the student to acquire a broad general education at approximately age 20. Inefficiency in teaching methods which prolongs unnecessarily the entrance of the professional student into his specialized study and career increases certain economic and sociological problems of the individual and of the nation.

In considering the adaptation of preprofessional programs to the conditions of mobilization, the long-term national interest must be the basis for decision and evaluation.

REPORT OF GROUP 23

The Role of Higher Education in Identifying and Strengthening the Positive Foundations of Democracy¹

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DEMOCRACY is not an easy word to define. Those who have faith in the democratic process find little disagreement among themselves, however, about what constitutes its positive foundations.

Primarily, democracy rests upon faith in the dignity of the individual. It is not enough that man shall be free from injustice, poverty, ignorance, or any other form of oppression; human dignity demands that he must be free for something as well. The

free man must be assured of his right to a maximum participation in all human activities: in his government, in his domestic affairs, in his church, in his economic system. Further, he must be guaranteed his right to develop his maximum productivity. Granted that there exist differences in individual potentialities and capacities, we must refuse to recognize degrees of the right to fullest self-realization, both spiritual and material.

Because the spirit of man can never be long or fully satisfied with the attainment of material good things alone, faith in the worth of the individual implies a belief in the existence of forces outside and beyond

¹ Based on the findings of Group 23 of the Conference. Analyst was Douglas McGregor, Antioch College; chairman was Luther W. Stalnaker, Drake University; consultant was Paul B. Lawson, University of Kansas.

man himself. If these forces exist, it follows that we must set up for ourselves, or recognize, values which we call spiritual. We must learn to appreciate them ourselves, and we must practice consideration for their appreciation by others. These values are essential to our way of life.

One of the elements of democracy which we must preserve is an increasing emphasis on personal responsibility, which must be encouraged if our Western civilization is to thrive. It will not suffice for the individual to think of his own rights as if he were existing in a vacuum. A proper balance between personal rights and the rights of the group must be recognized and maintained.

How can the institutions of higher education go about the task of teaching and strengthening the fundamentals of democracy? There are at least four areas in which they can operate.

Democracy in the classroom. Institutions of higher learning should be schools of democracy. Each course may, and should, be an example of cooperative activity. Without reflecting in any way upon the instructor's role as an expert in his subject and the moderator of the group, it is suggested that a great deal may be accomplished in raising morale, stimulating interest, and assuring cooperation by having each class talk over, at the beginning, such matters as objectives. By procedures of this kind, it is believed that the students will become more conscious of their stake in the course and will feel that the instructor's attitude is human as well as professional.

In times past, a great deal of faith has been placed in the efficacy of teaching democracy through special courses. These "courses in democracy" may be helpful, and, no doubt, frequently are. It appears, however, that it is even more effective to teach democratically and to practice democracy in all courses. Laboratory courses provide excellent opportunities for demonstrating democracy at work. In all student-faculty relations there should be no suggestion of special privilege. Faculties should consider themselves obligated to see that college curricula give adequate expression to democratic processes. It should never be forgotten that in a democracy people are supposed to cooperate to solve problems; this practice does not prevail in nondemocratic systems.

Democracy in college administration. Pious words about the importance of democratic processes will sound hollow in the student's ears unless he sees such professions reenforced by practice in the operation of the college. To ensure democratic practices, administration should be consultative and persuasive, not authoritarian. Just as the instructor should invite the cooperation of the students in planning the work of the course, so should the administration encourage the faculty to participate in fixing policies. A due regard for the maintenance of a proper balance of responsibilities should be expected to preclude any usurpation of the special functions of administration by the faculty.

Moreover, student participation may sometimes be helpful in solving some of the problems of administration, as experience has shown. The wise administrator will endeavor to draw all the members of the college community into the fullest possible cooperative effort. Informed campus opinion goes a long way toward securing cheerful acquiescence for policies and regulations which might otherwise be submitted to unwillingly. If maximum participation and maximum productivity are accepted as foundations of democracy, it follows that it is a responsibility of both faculty and administration to encourage individual growth.

Democracy in extra-curricular activities. Student organizations should be used to further and develop student participation and responsibility in campus living. The implications of academic freedom apply as justly to the learners as to the teachers. Since the existence of subversive groups is a negation of democracy, however, the presence of such a group on a college campus is intolerable. In seeking to eliminate subversive groups, the matter should be first referred to the student body, which, if it is properly experienced in democratic doctrine and procedure, may usually be trusted to deal fairly and adequately with the problem.

Responsibility of the college to the community. Besides its obligation to set an example of democratic living in the community in which it is situated, the responsibility of a college extends everywhere its alumni are to be found. There are two good reasons for this: college-trained men and women should have acquired the knowledge required to make them good citizens; if they have ab-

sorbed the lessons of the democratic way of life, they are eager to make their maximum contributions to the general welfare.

Colleges should do whatever they can to promote adult education as much as they can without slighting their immediate obligations, which are, of course, to the student community.

Faculty members should be encouraged to take positive stands—always on a voluntary and individual basis—on all issues affecting the conduct of affairs in the community, and to assume without feelings of restraint all obligations expected of other good citizens.

REPORT OF GROUP 24-25

Developing College Programs for Civil-Defense Training and College-Grade Programs to Aid in War Production¹

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IT was agreed that civil defense is an urgent aspect of our national life requiring orientation of persons of all ages in areas of self-reliance and mutual aid. Attention was given to ways in which institutions of higher learning may discharge their civil-defense responsibilities.

It was reported that operational responsibility for civil defense rests at the state and local levels. The Federal Civil Defense Administration is charged with the responsibility for development of doctrine, for the provision of staff guidance and coordination at the regional level, and for the training of top-level administrative personnel in four schools soon to be activated. The American Red Cross has been delegated operational responsibility in four areas: blood, first aid, home nursing, and nurses' aides. The Federal Government contemplates no financial aid to administrative units.

It is regarded as essential that institutions of higher learning assume aggressive leadership in the development and implementation of those activities appropriate to their human and physical resources which contribute to the organization and administration of the civil-defense programs of their respective localities.

Though plans will vary with the situa-

tion, they could include the following: (1) the appointment of a coordinator to channel information and to energize the institutional program; (2) the offering, or perhaps requirement, of the Red Cross first-aid course for faculty, staff, and students; (3) the integration of campus activities with local and state civil-defense programs; (4) the adaptation of curricula content to the self-reliance and mutual-aid orientation; (5) the extension of the adult-education offering to civil-defense areas, particularly in training courses for those who will teach others; (6) the adjustment of content in teacher-education programs; (7) the offering of in-service-training institutes for teachers and leaders in business and industry; (8) the development of speaker-bureau service to community groups; (9) the enlargement of extension services; (10) the provision of library services; (11) the release of accurate and scientific information to press, radio, and television media; (12) the convening of conferences where these may promote development or coordination of the local or state program of civil defense.

In all of these activities there are the immediate or survival components as well as the long-range educational values. In the atomic-energy field, for example, the peacetime or "sunny-side-of-the-atom" information can be presented along with the facts of atom-bomb destruction. Similarly, first-aid instruction can promote safer, more healthful living while developing desirable attitudes and skills for the disaster situation.

Suggested sources of information are the

¹ Based on the findings of Group 24-25 of the Conference. Analysts were H. P. Hammond, The Pennsylvania State College, and Dwayne Orton, Federal Civil Defense Administration; chairman was C. W. Beese, Purdue University; consultants were George Glasheen, Atomic Energy Commission, and Mable Walter, American National Red Cross.

following: Federal Civil Defense Administration, Washington, D. C., state, and local offices; American Red Cross, Washington, D. C., state, and local offices; United States Office of Education; National Education Association; information and education officers of local army-division headquarters.

It is recognized that in a number of ways the 1951 scene differs from that of 1941 with regard to defense-training programs for business and industry. These differences include the present slump in population at young adult level due to the low birth rate of the 1930's, the increased proportion of persons of nonemployable age, the reduction in unemployment, the increase in numbers of children requiring the care of young married women, the present deficiency in some types of industrial manpower, and the broadening of the needs for technically trained specialists.

By contrast with ten years ago, our approach to college-grade programs to aid war production has been slow and apathetic. The need for training is real. As plans are formulated, the successful models of World War II can be adapted to the present situation with improvements based on our past experience and on shifts in employment requirements.

The federally financed ESMWT program of World War II was regarded as effective, well administered, and economical. A similar program should be established. (Unofficial comment predicts activation of a program by July 1, 1951.) It should, however, embrace a broader curriculum in-

cluding, where needed, some of the materials of the general-education program. The plans should provide for easy adaptability to local community needs. In contrast with the former ESMWT program the participants in the projected program should be charged a nominal "service fee" to make firm their commitment to training.

Colleges and universities should not await federal subsidy nor should they limit activity to such a program. Responsibilities for defense training should be assumed immediately for the following reasons: (1) business, industry, municipal governments, and labor and professional groups have need of educational services, particularly in upgrading supervisory personnel; (2) these agencies find training programs conducted by educational institutions more effective than self-administered programs; (3) these agencies will in many cases carry all or part of costs; (4) public-relations value will attend these efforts.

In developing programs of defense training, the following should be considered: (1) Where needs arise, their existence must be demonstrated and the programs to meet them must be promoted with those who can be served; (2) teachers and instructional equipment may be brought to the students if this is more convenient than bringing the students to the campus (some programs are already being brought to industrial plants and army installations); (3) units of credit, normal term dates, and other administrative devices should be compromised if the training needs can better be met by deviation from them.

REPORT OF GROUP 26

General Education: Philosophy and Basic Principles¹

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THROUGHOUT the nation general education is a topic of academic consideration. There is a fair expectation that educators will find some agreement on

educational purposes. At high levels of generalization, such expectations are realized; there is much accord. There is little opposition to statements of purpose that include supplementing the limited learning of professional education, integrating the knowledge gleaned from elective courses, and developing congruity of thought and action. Thus broadly stated, the purposes

¹ Based on the findings of Group 26 of the Conference. Analyst was Judson R. Butler, Boston University; chairman was F. Champion Ward, University of Chicago; consultants were H. H. Hartshorn, Texas State University for Negroes, and Ruth G. Weintraub, Hunter College.

of general education are so common that they intimate an unexpected unity.

When purposes are more exactly described, when their philosophic justifications are outlined, or when methods for their achievement are suggested, differences of opinion arise. These divisions appear on such issues as the durability of values, on whether values are discovered in current cultural norms or transmitted code, and on whether modern social change is fundamental or only extensive. Vigorous division arises around the issue of whether education is to be directed toward the effective functioning of learning or toward the development of powers and knowledges where use is left to individual choice. There is sharp divergence on the degree to which educators may arrogate to themselves the moulding of attitudes, the direction of future behavior, and the determination of purposes.

Differences of such moment are not readily resolved nor are general agreements easily brought to exact and simple terms. A brief conference involving participants of diverse viewpoints and varied experience may raise and clarify issues, but their discussion is bound to be inconclusive.

Agreement is least encumbered on the following points: (1) Statements of purpose for general education are inescapably involved with a system of values. They, furthermore, include concern for both "social" and "individual" goods and do not regard these as mutually exclusive ends. (2) General education is directed toward modification of behavior when behavior is broadly conceived to include intellectual, emotive, attitudinal, and physical activity. (3) The objectives of general education have often been achieved by good teachers in some other kind of program but are more likely of achievement with suitable curricula and administrative organization. (4) The choice of purposes largely determines curricular patterns, administrative plans, and teaching methods.

General education may be discussed and is practiced under the influences of two major alternative sets of premises. These premises are organized around the relative emphasis that is to be given to theoretical and academic values on one hand and practical and applied social values on the other.

Within the first set of premises, general education is regarded as a correction or as

a restoration of a truly liberal education. In this group, some educators are primarily concerned with a correction that calls for a grouping of disciplines to resist the fragmentation and artificial separation of subject-matter characteristic of modern elective systems. Others give first concern to a restoration of philosophy as the unifying center of a curriculum aimed at the production of effective moral agents. They react against recent overemphasis on the amoral canons of the natural sciences and choose to educate for the "good" use of what is learned. Both factions of this group are concerned with critical intelligence, sensibility, informed opinion, and philosophic insight. Education is conceived an "enlargement of mind" and knowledge and refinement of taste, to be achieved largely by development of intellectual and aesthetic powers. The selection and treatment of materials is affected. For example, mathematics appears as a study of characteristic mathematical problems and of the methods used in mathematics.

A second group seeks a more drastic revision of education to meet the practical purposes of contemporary life. There is division within this group, based on the immediacy or remoteness of desirable purposes. Nevertheless, it is doubtful if there is any concurrence with objectives that are limited to no more than the exact, practical skills of modern living. Most statements make some combination of philosophy with skills of life. Such combinations are usually built about an objective of developing social responsibility. They include the learning of skills, such as writing or techniques of the democratic process, but also include the less immediate purposes of understanding scientific method or enjoying art. Under these premises there is a general tendency to select and treat materials in the light of social norms and to aim at applications of learning. Mathematics appears as "Mathematics for Every Day" or "Book-keeping and Accounting for the Family."

Individuals tend to resist identification with either syndrome in this dichotomy. The statements are, perhaps, too exact, overexclusive, and somewhat extreme. More widely endorsed statements are more generalized and less detailed. Two of the more acceptable positions are as follows:

1. The objective is to modify the disposition and behavior of students in accordance with universal values, principally

by means of the enlargement of the mind through an analysis of, study of, and participation in appropriately selected achievements of human culture. The set of values and materials used will necessarily vary somewhat with the objectives of the institutions concerned.

2. General education is to afford all students the opportunity of growth as *individuals* with basic human powers, as mind, emotions, and imagination, and as *members of society* with responsibilities toward their families, their communities, their country, and all of mankind. General education is to enable the students to acquire that growth whereby they can enjoy a life of greatest and most enduring satisfaction.

General education can be more than acci-

dentally identified with certain kinds of curricular arrangement and administrative plan, but the essence of its description must be drawn from the delineation of teaching method and educational purpose. The task of stating, clarifying, and categorizing these purposes is beset by semantic difficulty. Disagreements are not well defined, and sharp differentiations in viewpoint are almost impossible. It is also probable that much agreement is obscured by terminological misunderstanding, inevitable in brief discussion of matters abstruse and elusive. Such discussion increases the area of understanding and also gives evidence of extensive agreement on, and widespread enthusiasm for, the purposes of general education.

REPORT OF GROUP 27

General Education: Getting the Program Started in a Large University¹

E. F. CASTETTER

University of New Mexico

THE establishing of a program must presuppose at least sympathetic understanding and approval of its objectives on the part of the administration. Nevertheless, it is important that the plan represent a "grass-roots" movement in which the initiative is taken within the faculty, possibly beginning with the creation of a committee to study the problem. The imposition of a program on an institution by an academic czar usually cannot be expected to succeed, although the original impetus might come as a proposal or a challenge from the president or a dean.

The program must be indigenous, developed out of the local matrix and adapted to the specific needs of the institution. No full-blown program can be imported from another institution and superimposed upon the home scene with prospect of anything other than failure from the beginning. Rather, after studying a variety of plans in operation at other universities, the pro-

gram should be started as an integral part of the institution's framework and permitted to evolve from year to year. Moreover, it is important that the staff, in the beginning at least, be recruited on a voluntary basis from existing personnel after tactful consultation with department heads concerned.

Although the aims of general education are everywhere the same, the means of achieving them are various. The arrangement to be employed in a given institution is contingent upon the objectives and the magnitude of the program contemplated. It is not a question of *all or none* in general education, or one of *either general or specialized* education. The proposal need not involve the entire educational plan of the institution. Initially it might involve simply a small experimental group, or it might include only the college of arts and sciences. Most trouble is to be expected in working out a plan on a university-wide basis because of such things as vested interests, rigidity of established departmental or college curricula, general administrative conflicts, the requirements of professional training, ignorance of the meaning

¹ Based on the findings of Group 27 of the Conference. Analyst was Jerome G. Kerwin, University of Chicago; chairman was Aaron J. Ihde, University of Wisconsin; consultant was W. Hugh Stickler, Florida State University.

of general education, fears of lowering of standards, closed minds, and faculty inertia. These must be resolved as best befits the individual situation.

Institutions are strongly advised against putting together an assemblage of existing traditional courses and calling the product a program in general education. A surprisingly large number of the plans now in operation in colleges and universities consist of general education in name only. Moreover, no satisfactory course can be offered by having each member of a group of instructors give a set of isolated lectures in his special field. Such an approach might mean that the participating lecturers are not making a contribution to general education. To be successful, a course in general education must be thoroughly integrated and must be liberal in content and outlook.

The question arises as to how much autonomy a general-education program should have. Here again there is no single formula. Although some kind of effective administrative unit is essential in order to provide continuity, stability, and guidance, this may range from a unit with complete autonomy under its own dean to one which

is fully integrated with existing, traditional academic machinery. It is not regarded as sound policy, however, to initiate a program with a faculty which devotes its full time and energies to general education. At that stage, at least, each teacher should have an affiliation with a traditional academic department and should always offer at least one course in his special field. Since some institutions are beginning to train people for teaching in general education, suitable personnel is becoming progressively less difficult to secure.

Since courses in general education should be better in quality than the average traditional course, the problem immediately arises as to the method of attracting superior teachers to the program. Certain important guiding principles are: (1) The instructor must know in advance that the administration is solidly behind the plan and that there is a definite future in it for him; (2) he must have an opportunity for the pursuit of scholarly activities either in a traditional academic department or in general education. In brief, he must have an academic home; (3) he must be assured of forthcoming rewards comparable with those of men in traditional fields.

REPORT OF GROUP 28

General Education: Getting the Program Started in a Small Institution¹

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Goucher College

GENERAL education is now receiving widespread consideration if not wholehearted acceptance in our institutions of higher learning. This interest has engendered discussion and argument as to what general education is, what it should contain, and how it should be taught. As an ever-increasing number of institutions considers the possibility of adopting a program of general education, problems associated with the implementation of this program arise. Many of these difficulties are peculiar to the institution concerned,

but there are many common problems confronting all small colleges contemplating the introduction of such a program.

The tendency on the part of a portion of a college faculty to oppose any curricular change is notorious. As in all branches of society there are vested interests in our colleges and universities which oppose changes deemed inimical to their interests. But most opposition to a general-education program does not stem from that source. College teachers have been trained as specialists. There is a very real concern that the specialized training of our college graduates may be adversely affected by the adoption of new courses untried and untested which deviate from traditional patterns. This discussion group unanimously

¹ Based on the findings of Group 28 of the Conference. Analyst was Delsie Holmquist, State Teachers College, Moorhead, Minnesota; chairman was Stuart Baller, Carthage College; consultant was Clarence Lee Furrow, Knox College.

indicated a wholehearted respect for specialization. It was further agreed that general education need not and should not imperil that basic function of higher education.

For these and other reasons a proposed general-education program may be confronted by a considerable and determined opposition. Attempts to impose the program from above may doom the proposal at its inception. It is necessary that the faculty in general become convinced of the superior merits of the proposed change in its initial stages. They should share in, if not determine, the nature of the program and the types of courses to be offered. In this process faculties usually are deeply aware of their own inadequacy. Programs of in-service training, visits to other institutions, common reading programs, the utilization of consultants, and other similar devices help to overcome this feeling of insecurity and to encourage the faculty in its ability to cope with the demands which the adoption of a new curriculum may entail.

Members of the college faculty are likely to be appalled and overwhelmed by the increased demands on their time and energy. The planning and teaching of new courses, the search for new materials not easily accessible, the education of the faculty in areas long neglected or never studied are usually far more arduous undertakings than the faculty or administration had imagined. If this effort is not properly provided for by a release from other duties, participants in the program may easily become discouraged. Here the responsibility falls on the administration. It must be prepared to lighten the instructor's other work in the college, to assist in the further education of teaching personnel, if necessary, and to provide the adequate funds for the space, facilities, and materials essential to the courses contemplated in the new curriculum.

Participants in a general-education program usually find that it limits the amount of work that can be done in their area of specialization. Time available for research and publication is reduced. The emphasis is placed on teaching. This is a real sacrifice, for it jeopardizes promotion which tends to be based on scholarship. If colleges and universities wish their faculties

to emphasize teaching at the expense of research, they must be prepared to give tangible evidence of this by salary increases and promotions which can be equated with those received for other services performed by the faculty. As long as teachers feel that participation in general-education courses is less rewarding than other professional activities, such as research, wholehearted cooperation will not be achieved.

Once a program has been instituted the question arises as to how it may be evaluated. This is in many ways the crux of the general-education program. It involves the measurement of attainment of objectives, a study of the effectiveness of the courses and the way they are taught, and finally an evaluation of the type of student emerging from such a program. As general-education curricula are likely to be indigenous to the institution, it becomes necessary for schools to devise their own tests. Most colleges are at present dissatisfied with their evaluation programs. Many have not even made the attempt. Nevertheless, evaluation is crucial and schools inaugurating a general-education program must be prepared to face it.

Another particular difficulty of general-education curricula involves the relationship of institutions embarking on such programs with professional schools, state boards of education, accrediting agencies, and other institutions of higher learning. At the moment the standards set by other schools or agencies threaten the establishment or lead to the modification of general-education programs. There is evidence, however, that these bodies are not indifferent to the general-education movement. A persistent effort on the part of the colleges has an excellent chance of success in securing a reconsideration and modification of professional requirements in harmony with the objectives of their new programs.

To approve the idea of general education is not enough. Colleges must be prepared to grapple realistically with the problems incidental to the introduction of such a program. Their solution involves time, patience, and money. The success of any general-education program may well be determined by the honesty and effectiveness with which these problems are faced and answered. To ignore them will jeopardize the program at its inception.

REPORT OF GROUP 29

General Education: Improving the Established Programs¹

HERMANN R. MUELDER

Knox College

EVALUATION of general-education programs is a matter of greater concern than in other educational programs, because the former sets out to accomplish objectives less concretely defined in terms of subject-matter. It is important to discover whether students have achieved such educational goals as "improving critical judgments," or "good citizenship." Such changes in personality are not only more difficult to measure than to accumulate data, but are more difficult to ascertain immediately because they occur over a longer period of time.

Experience demonstrates the value of using students to evaluate our programs; their comments are useful in revising course methods, sharpening content, and improving teaching procedures. Devices used to engage their evaluation include: questionnaires, essays written for orientation and English courses, items in comprehensive examinations, interviews, sessions with student delegations, and actual participation of students in faculty committees. It seems desirable that such students making evaluations be well aware of course objectives. Students may even be useful in rephrasing if not in determining objectives. From the perspective of the senior year a student's evaluation may be different from the freshman year.

Evaluation of general education by teachers is complicated in the larger schools by the size of the staff, a very large proportion of which may be only temporarily or partially associated with an enterprise in the field. Such teachers may not truly identify themselves with the courses they teach. Interest in evaluation may be stimulated in staff meetings devoted to reexamination of the course objectives. It is important that courses do not crystallize; that they be adapted to the inclinations of the teaching staff and readily altered to harmo-

nize with the results of evaluation. It should be recognized that good teaching techniques vary with individual teachers; variety should be tolerated within the framework of objectives. Divergent teaching procedures may be pulled together by common or comprehensive examinations, which should be formulated cooperatively, if possible, with the assistance of an instructor competently trained in testing procedures. Such comprehensives should test generalizations, judgments, and applications rather than the recall of data. Use of data not obviously related to course content may injure student morale by frustrating conscientious students.

Integration of general education. Articulation of general education in college with high-school preparation is the concern of several studies now being made. Experience shows that it may be necessary to conduct some general-education activities at different levels, the lower being designed to contact the more poorly prepared students at the point of their actual educational achievement. Adaptations of this kind may aggravate the problem of poor motivation where no credit is given for remedial courses, and have the disadvantage of burdening poor students with an extra academic load. Furthermore, already low qualifications for admission to higher-education institutions may be threatened with further reductions in the standards of beginning courses. It is important that general-education courses not require standards of achievement lower than the traditional freshman courses or introductory courses in departments which they replace. A procedure that has worked successfully in a number of instances to maintain adequate standards along with adjustment to the individual differences of students is the use of comprehensive examinations which will permit students of varying educational attainments to achieve enlargement of their general education at a rate varying with their individual capacities.

Within the college or university itself integration seems to be accomplished in courses which subordinate subject-matter to

¹ Based on the findings of Group 29 of the Conference. Analyst was George H. White, Oklahoma Agricultural and Mechanical College; chairman was Paul L. Dressel, Michigan State College; consultant was Claude E. Hawley, United States Office of Education.

central ideas or concepts. In science, for example, courses have been effectively integrated about ideas such as evolution, energy, destruction of matter, classification, cause, and conceptual model inventions. There is evidence that such a method results in teaching of a substantial amount of subject-matter itself. There is the danger, however, that such plans of integration may be merely topical arrangements perfected by the staff and that they may not actually achieve integration for the student. Studies by students in small groups which work together on common problems may achieve this objective more successfully. In a number of schools such specific integrating courses are provided at the senior level. Possibly if most teaching were of the proper kind, specific courses for integration might not be needed.

Organization of general education. An important factor determining the organization of general-education staffs has been the concern lest teachers lose status by not having an appointment in one of the older departments. The fear prevailed that professional advancement would be retarded. Increasingly, full-time appointments in general education are being made, and the administrations show more inclination to base advancement in such instances on the quality of teaching rather than on departmental research. That teaching general education is more time-consuming should be recognized in the academic load. A dis-

advantage in duality of departmental appointments is that the labor expended in committee meetings and departmental responsibilities may be doubled. The necessity for such dual associations may be removed as, with time, faculty are selected with favorable attitudes toward their colleagues in general education, and as young instructors round out incompleting graduate work with training definitely directed toward participation in general-education programs.

Recommendation for research. General education has come to be recognized as a mature professional endeavor. In many institutions, however, the growth and improvement in existing programs of general education are particularly opposed by a hard core of resistance which persists particularly among departments of sciences, mathematics, and applied sciences. The time is right for general education to assume the initiative in developing the evidence necessary to resolve the differences of opinion between its protagonists and the advocates of traditional departmental offerings. This group, therefore, recommends that the NEA stimulate the development of a research project involving the analysis of the job responsibilities of scientists and applied scientists and of accumulating evidence on these questions: (1) What is the value of general education to the man on the job? (2) What is the relative value of general education or professional-course experience?

REPORT OF GROUP 30

General Education: Bases for Determining Content and Method¹

ROBERT G. BONE

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THE content and method of general-education courses, and for that matter of any course, should be determined by specific factors. This group agreed that the following factors needed to be considered in determining the content and

method: (1) aims of general education, (2) areas and teaching-learning units to be used, (3) aims of each unit or course, (4) time allotted to general-education courses and to each course involved, (5) types of students, (6) types of teachers, and (7) facilities.

Aims of general education. In determining the aims of general education, it is first necessary to define the subject briefly, yet broadly. There are many definitions. This

¹ Based on the findings of Group 30 of the Conference. Analyst was J. Paul Leonard, San Francisco State College; chairman was Ben F. Rogers, Jr., Florida State University; consultant was Otto W. Snarr, State Teachers College, Moorhead, Minnesota.

group, representing nearly 40 institutions and many areas of study, agreed on a brief statement suggested by its analyst: "General education is designed to develop in all youth the values, faith, behavior, judgment, discipline, and skills necessary for them to function individually and cooperatively in maintaining and improving our democratic society."

The next step is to determine by such aids and techniques as tests, questionnaires, research studies, logic of experience, and philosophy (1) what the students need and (2) what society expects of the educated citizen. The aims themselves should be stated in terms of competencies and behavior—attitudes, knowledge, values, and skills.

Areas and teaching-learning units. For administrative as well as for content reasons courses can be organized into the five areas: communications, biological sciences, humanities, physical sciences, and social sciences. A staff may, however, decide to use teaching-learning units which cut across the five areas, establishing units covering such material as (1) the understanding of the requisites of a sound and happy home and family life, (2) a study of the values that guide men and the formulation of individual values that will sustain young people in a modern world, and (3) physical and mental health.

Once the course is established, the staff or committee designated should decide on its specific aims. They should decide what competencies and behaviors their students should acquire. These should, of course, be consistent with the broad aims decided upon for general-education courses as a whole.

Time allotted to specific courses. The time element is a decisive factor in determining content and method. Most schools are based on four-year curricula. Only a part of this time can be given to general-education courses. Obviously, only a small amount of material can be covered in the time allotted a specific course. The entire staff should decide on the amount of time to be allotted each teaching-learning unit;

in each unit very careful selection of content and method will need to be made.

General factors affecting content and method. In each institution there will be certain factors which will affect the content and method to be used in that institution. These are the main factors which make it impractical to adopt *in toto* a course already in operation at another institution. They are the backgrounds and abilities of the students, the personalities, educational backgrounds, experiences, and abilities of the faculty, and the budget and physical facilities of each institution.

Content. The content of specific courses in each institution will depend on the general factors mentioned above. The content of the courses will be further affected by the selection and inclusion of material or experiences that will: (1) give the student opportunities to practice the type of behavior implied in and pertinent to the aims; (2) be significant and satisfying to the student; and (3) lie within the range of the student's ability.

One must keep in mind that there are many experiences from which the staff may make a selection; these experiences when practiced may result in more than one outcome or achievement.

Method. The staff, after studying all the above-mentioned factors, should determine the best methods of bringing subject-matter and student into contact. There are many methods which might be used: lecture, discussion, demonstration laboratory, seminar, panel of students or faculty, investigation and research, field trips, the use of numerous training aids, and others. Each staff must decide which combination of methods will best realize the desired aims of the course. A good deal of testing and experimenting should be done in order to bring about continual improvement.

An evaluation program. There must be a satisfactory evaluation program which will determine whether the aims have been achieved, whether the content and method are satisfactory—whether the student is being prepared to participate actively and intelligently in our democratic society.

REPORT OF GROUP 31

Educating Women for Expanding Responsibilities¹

INEZ JENKINS
Southern University

DYNAMICS affecting the changing role of women are: (1) securing of the right to vote, (2) acceptance of the principle of equal opportunity for women in higher education, (3) employment of women during World Wars I and II, (4) the increasing employment and need of women for remunerative work, and (5) the positive change in attitude of women toward work and toward participation in the political and civic life of the community. In the past 25 or 30 years, women have been given expanded responsibilities in the economic, political, and civic life of our nation.

Theoretically, as most institutions of higher education are organized, there seems to be little difference between good higher education for men and good higher education for women. The fundamental difference is reflected in the type of college—whether it is a woman's college or a coeducational college. The woman's college is more cognizant of the dual role of women, preparing them for the professions, but at the same time placing great emphasis on women's role as women, pointing up the human values—spiritual and aesthetic—without weakening the liberal-arts program. The woman's college also provides more opportunity for women to exercise leadership than does the coeducational institution. It is to be recognized that the kind of education received by women depends a great deal upon their "choice"—whether the desire is for courses leading to the professions or for a broad liberal-arts program.

The following major areas which have been the concern of institutions of higher learning in the education of women should be broadened and deepened as institutions rethink their objectives in terms of long- and short-range needs.

Personal development. Higher education must be concerned with the development

of women as persons in terms of total philosophy and orientation toward life. They must be taught respect for themselves as women and for their unique role in preserving basic human values. The liberal-arts program, including courses in the humanities, philosophy, and religion, is invaluable if taught with this in mind. Courses in personality development, good grooming, and the social graces are not to be ignored in such a program, whether the presentation is made in formal courses such as orientation or in the counseling and guidance program or through extra-curricular activity.

Citizenship. Although there are few formal courses geared toward the development of citizenship, institutions of higher education are admirably suited to citizenship-training through extra-curricular activities involving "student government," community-service programs of the Y.M.C.A. and Y.W.C.A., and dormitory organizations. Many courses in the humanities can be evaluated in terms of values for citizenship training. Although participation of women in the political life of the community is leading them into professional schools for government training, there is still great need for programs for arousing women students out of their apathy toward acceptance of their responsibility as citizens.

Vocational and professional training. Most women students now entering college are interested in preparing for a vocation or profession, whether they plan marriage or not. Thus they are prepared to supplement the family income if needed and to provide for the family in case of emergency. "Career-minded" women are increasingly being directed into the professions, both those traditionally looked upon as women's professions and those traditionally dominated by men, such as medicine, law, and business management.

Homemaking and family life. Today, many of the functions of the home have been taken over by social institutions, and the drudgery of homemaking has been reduced by the use of mechanical facilities. This

¹ Based on the findings of Group 31 of the Conference. Chairman was Miriam Sheldon, University of Illinois; consultant was B. L. Parkinson, Mississippi State College for Women.

has left, as the essential function of the man and woman of the home, the rearing of children and guidance in interpersonal relationships. Higher education should recognize the mutual responsibility of men and women as homemakers. The vital importance of women in the rearing of children, their responsibility for the preservation of the unifying values of the home and for the experiences which contribute to the development of wholesome personalities of children should be emphasized. While the homemaking curriculum may emphasize such courses as house management, child care, cooking—the whole area of home economics—the prospective homemaker should be exposed to liberal education for its value to her own personality of development, and because of her responsibility for the cultural and moral tone of the home. Likewise, it is thought that inasmuch as most women enrolled in college plan to marry, using a vocation merely as a stepping stone to marriage, college women should be exposed to some type of homemaking program.

Changes and trends in higher education to be noted as a result of the expanded responsibilities of women are:

1. *Enrollment.* (a) The enrollment of women in higher education has increased five and one-half times in the last 30 years, although the ratio of women to men has steadily decreased; (b) more women are enrolling in coeducational institutions in preference to colleges for women; and (c) some men's colleges have begun to enroll women students.

2. *Curriculum.* Although women in higher education are beginning to enroll in all curricula, especially those with professional and vocational value, educators are still divided as to whether there should be special courses for women.

3. *Extra-curricular activities.* There has been a marked expansion of student participation in the government of the community life of the college, providing for training in civic responsibility. Broad participation in the cultural, intercultural, and social programs is encouraged both for its contribution to student development and to improved human relations. Students are more and more being given opportunity to help in shaping the policies of higher education—in the areas of curriculum as well as extra-curricular life.

4. *Services needed.* In World War II, the five greatest areas of demand for college-trained women workers were: (a) foods, other than teaching, (b) teaching school, mainly on the elementary and secondary levels, (c) secretarial and clerical work, (d) laboratory technicians, and (e) recreation. In the current period of mobilization, based upon expected recommendations from the War Manpower Commission, there will be broader utilization of the services of women, both voluntary and required.

5. *Preparation needed.* This will involve the extension of higher education to larger numbers of women, preparing them in (a) the sciences, especially scientific research, and (b) the professions—medicine, nursing, social work, mental hygiene, clinical psychology, law, business management, and personnel management. Long-range programs of education are to be preferred over against "quickie" or emergency programs which characterized World War II. The group strongly endorses the integration of nursing education with general education.

6. *Guidance.* Higher education must speed up the development of strongly coordinated guidance and counseling programs through which women can secure expert help in solving problems and making difficult choices in terms of the ways in which they can best contribute to the mobilization effort. The responsibilities and influence of women are eternal and ongoing, beyond the period of emergency to the time of peace and stability.

Group 31 adopted the following resolutions:

WHEREAS, the responsibilities of women are greatly expanded, and

WHEREAS, there is increased need of higher education for women,

BE IT RESOLVED: That more educational opportunities be extended to women through grants of scholarships, fellowships, and assistantships.

WHEREAS, health needs of the civilian population and military personnel are making increasing demands for the services of professionally and technically prepared nurses, and

WHEREAS, education for nursing is now predominantly outside higher education, with emphasis on apprenticeship training,

BE IT RESOLVED: That institutions of higher learning recognize their responsibility for establishing programs provid-

ing for the professional and technical education of nurses.

WHEREAS, the responsibilities of women will undoubtedly widen during the coming period of semimobilization,

BE IT RESOLVED: That this Conference urge the active participation of women at all policy and planning levels, and the full use of their skills and talents in the interests of national security.

WHEREAS, the values of our Western culture now stand gravely imperiled,

BE IT RESOLVED: That institutions of higher learning have the obligation (1) to preserve as an essential part of our cultural heritage the basic concepts of the humanities, and (2) to recognize heightened responsibility for the preservation of the essential values of the family and home.

REPORT OF GROUP 32

Improving Undergraduate Programs for the Preparation of Elementary- and Secondary-School Teachers¹

J. FRANKLIN HUNT

Hamilton College

WHILE it may be true that nothing is certain except death and taxes, nevertheless, these could be joined by a third category, the increasing number of children each year for whom educational opportunities must be provided. New schools must be built; teachers must be prepared; equipment must be supplied if this country is to grow and to achieve maximum development. It is the joint responsibility of the school, the home, the church, and the community to transmit the American way of life from one generation to the next by acquainting young people with democratic principles through precept and example. The school's share in this process is so important that responsibility for satisfactory attainment should not be left to unskilled, though willing, hands; it should not be entrusted to any but persons of superior promise and ability. There is increasing need for making the teaching profession attractive to such people.

Recruiting, selecting, guiding, and counseling. The effectiveness of any undergraduate program for preparing teachers is determined to a great extent by the quality and number of young people attracted to it. Recruiting methods must counteract influences which now tend to divert from teaching many young people who would ordi-

narily enter the profession. More good teachers are needed at all levels but, instead of the numbers of prospective teachers increasing, a trend in the opposite direction is noticeable.

Recruiting, selecting, guiding, and counseling potential teachers are responsibilities of the profession. A positive approach should be exercised in attempting to discharge these responsibilities. Methods which have proved successful in the past have concerned themselves with the general improvement of the economic and social status of the teacher. The resources of the teachers' associations may also be used and the cooperation of secondary-school guidance counselors be sought. Cooperation with the Future Teachers of America or similar organizations should prove to be fruitful.

Since it is probable that the abnormally large increase in the elementary-school population will be with us for a number of years, many teachers, originally prepared to teach at the secondary-school level, should be diverted to teaching in the elementary schools. National figures on the supply and demand for teachers at the various levels should be used by those responsible for diversion. It is generally agreed that the displaced secondary-school teacher and the student who changes from one level to another in mid-course should be encouraged to complete the minimum preparation required for certification as elementary-school teachers. The same principle should apply, as well, to the student who holds an undergraduate degree but has had no professional prepara-

¹ Based on the findings of Group 32 of the Conference. Analyst was E. Graham Pogue, Ball State Teachers College; chairman was E. B. Robert, Louisiana State University; consultant was E. T. McSwain, Northwestern University; consultant on public relations was G. H. Holmes, Iowa State Teachers College.

tion. Notwithstanding the urgencies of the emergency, every attempt should be made to insure adequate preparation by requiring training above and beyond minimal certification standards.

Not all young people are fitted by endowment or temperament to become successful teachers. The unfit ought to be eliminated as early as possible. It is obvious that a valid and reliable measuring device used for admission purposes would solve the problem. Attempts to institute a series of tests and measurements for this purpose have enjoyed some success, but for the most part elimination of the unfit has been left to a decision of a committee on teacher education, which ordinarily bases its conclusions upon consideration of such factors as the student's proficiency in his area of specialization and professional courses, his physical attributes, and his personality.

General and specialized education in the undergraduate program. All teachers need the broad cultural background commonly associated with the concept of general education in addition to the preparation afforded by the specialized professional courses. Since the elementary-school teacher is primarily concerned with the development of the whole child along a wide range of basic attitudes, understandings, and skills, his preparation is normally different from and should include more courses concerned with methodology than are needed by the secondary-school teacher. All teachers, at all levels, should be aware of the effect of their teaching methods on the pupils they teach, should constantly attempt to keep abreast of new discoveries in methodology, and should strive to improve their own methods.

Generally speaking, for one preparing to teach in secondary schools the general-education courses should occupy about 40-50 per cent of his time; courses in his teaching field, 30-40 per cent; professional courses, about 20 per cent. The elementary-school teacher should divide his time about equally between general-education courses and those in the professional and specialized fields.

The above paragraph implies, and there is general agreement of, the need for a minimum of four years of preparation for teaching. Recognizing the fact that a five-year program is becoming common, it is suggested that each teacher-education insti-

tution attempt to establish a five-year integrated program as an ultimate goal. This five-year program should culminate in the awarding of the master's degree. In this program, so long as there is integration, there seems to be no real reason for requiring that the fifth year be completed before teaching experience is gained. There seems to be general agreement that the professional-education courses should be spread out through the four-year curriculum; there is, however, little agreement as to when certain courses of the sequence should appear. Despite wide variation in this respect, there is agreement on the content of such courses. The titles of such courses are many and varied and present a real problem in definition. Once this difficulty has been surmounted, it is generally accepted that a student's training should include teaching under supervision, insight into teaching methods gained through laboratory experience as well as through discussion, understanding the uses of tests and measurements, introduction to psychological principles applied to educational concerns, and knowledge of the recurrent problems of education.

Accreditation. The trend toward development of national accreditation of teacher education seems to be generally favored and accepted. Standards used in accreditation, since they are applied by an outside organization, have no legal status within a state yet they may serve to point out inadequacies and thus contribute to the raising of standards. National accreditation should probably lean heavily upon the standards already established by various organizations, but care should be exercised that small institutions devoted principally to the teaching of liberal arts are not discriminated against in favor of large professional teacher-education institutions. It is apparent that there is a close relationship existing between accreditation and certification. So close is this relationship, and so much to be desired, that every effort should be made to close any gap existing between them whenever possible.

Group cooperation. Teacher education requires cooperation from increasingly larger segments of the profession. It is recommended that the techniques of group dynamics be used, whenever appropriate, to achieve democratic cooperation. In this respect, faculty workshops are reported by

some institutions to be markedly successful. At the interinstitutional level, state advisory committees on education have done much to achieve harmony and to stimulate needed

change. Group cooperation is the very essence of democracy. It is of extreme importance for the teacher to understand, to experience, and to employ its principles.

REPORT OF GROUP 33

Improving Graduate Programs for Elementary- and Secondary-School Teachers¹

J. W. MAUCKER

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IN the following summary of basic principles, attention has been centered solely on introductory graduate work (master's-degree level) for classroom teachers in the elementary and secondary schools. No consideration was given to the training of supervisors and administrators.

1. On those responsible for graduate programs for elementary- and secondary-school teachers rests an obligation to develop *functional* programs designed deliberately and specifically to contribute to the professional effectiveness of teachers.

2. While there undoubtedly are significant lessons to be learned from experience with long-established graduate programs for the training of college teachers and research workers, the program for elementary- and secondary-school teachers should be based primarily on analysis of the qualifications needed for professional competence in teaching in the *elementary* and *secondary schools*. The evidence indicates that too often the newer plans are simply modeled after the traditional master's-degree programs with certain deletions (as of language and thesis requirements).

3. Admission to graduate work should be provisional, with admission to candidacy for a degree coming after the student has demonstrated his ability to pursue graduate work successfully. In general, it is desirable that students have had some teaching experience prior to completion of their master's-degree programs (exceptions in case of students with high degree of maturity and

insight into the teaching process). Admission requirements should be broader than scholarship alone, and should include consideration of health, pattern of undergraduate work, aptitude- and achievement-test results, and experience.

4. A large element of *flexibility* in graduate-degree programs is desirable to facilitate adaptation, through counseling, to the special needs of individual students with varying patterns of undergraduate training and teaching experience.

5. A graduate program suitable for elementary- and secondary-school teachers will ordinarily include the following elements:

a. *Continued emphasis on general education.* Since the teacher should be one of the broadly educated citizens of his community, his program should include some work designed to increase his grasp of knowledge in areas not directly related to his teaching assignment. (Incidentally, a distinct lack of courses in various academic areas designed to meet the needs of teachers rather than of specialists doing major work in these fields has been a definite obstacle to the achievement of this objective.)

b. *Advanced preparation in teaching fields.* Advanced work is needed in broad subject areas for which the teacher has direct responsibility (applicable to both elementary- and secondary-school teachers).

c. *Advanced professional education.* It is important that this phase of the program include appropriately planned and carefully supervised laboratory, clinical, and field experiences at an advanced level; it may include an internship period. Care should be taken to guard against

¹ Based on the findings of Group 33 of the Conference. Analyst was William R. Ross, Colorado State College of Education; chairman was L. G. Townsend, University of Missouri; consultant was E. D. Grizzell, University of Pennsylvania.

abuse of internships; they are to be looked upon as essentially training situations rather than means of securing professional service at little expense.

d. *Research training and/or experience.* The ability to locate, interpret, evaluate, and apply the results of research (to be a consumer of research) appears to be desirable for all students; the ability to conduct research, for many. Research in this connection may include relatively informal analyses, studies, or projects designed to give the student experience under supervision in the type of investigative or creative work which is coming to be accepted as an essential part of the work of a master teacher. Many patterns may be developed—the important point is that some specific part of the graduate program should be deliberately designed to provide opportunities for the graduate student to do individual, independent work of a creative and/or investigative nature which will prepare him to do work of that

character as an elementary- or secondary-school teacher.

e. *Improvement of personal characteristics.* Adequate education of the teacher should include identification and appropriate treatment of personal limitations, such as speech defects, annoying mannerisms, mental health problems, and also positive development of facility in communication and in adaptation to social situations.

6. Graduate programs should be maintained only in schools with competent faculties, reasonable faculty loads, and adequate library and laboratory facilities. It is hoped that accrediting agencies will develop more definite standards, with emphasis on qualitative considerations, for colleges offering graduate work for elementary- and secondary-school teachers.

7. A comprehensive examination (written and/or oral), based on the objectives of the program rather than solely on course content, is an essential part of a satisfactory graduate program.

REPORT OF GROUP 34

Field-Laboratory Experience in the Preparation of Elementary- and Secondary-School Teachers¹

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THE preparation of teachers has shifted from the limited contact of students under a critic teacher in a short period of time to a wider program of directed experiences in the field of future activity in school and community. This shift is based on the concept that future teachers grow in professional competence over a period of years in their preservice training. As college students these future teachers will progressively assume the function of guides of children and youth. In this type of teacher development field-laboratory experience is basic.

Design. Preparing teachers through field-

laboratory experience requires a carefully designed program and considerable administrative concern in carrying it out. The design for the program should be built on the type of teacher desired. It should consider the variations among students in the richness of their experiences in society, the contributions that courses in the curriculum make to enrich their experiences, the availability of community resources, and the supervisory staff available for guiding youth into needed experience.

Experience. If teacher-education students in college are to be instrumental in guiding children and youth, they must experience this responsibility until they adopt it as a major purpose. Such a transformation is not alone the result of classroom instruction. Students should not only think themselves into the ideal school or community; they must develop in the climate of the

¹ Based on the findings of Group 34 of the Conference. Analyst was L. O. Andrews, The Ohio State University; chairman was E. R. McCartney, Fort Hays Kansas State College; consultant was Emery W. Leamer, State Teachers College, LaCrosse, Wisconsin.

social scene in which they take an active part. Participation in church work, scout groups, youth programs, and recreation programs will supplement the school environment to provide the fertile soil which may produce desired social and emotional growth of prospective teachers. The cumulation of well-directed experiences is a deepened consciousness of purpose, especially as new challenges are met and resolved and children are led into better patterns of living.

Time. Young people need time for growth and development to become active participants in community living. In designing a program for teacher education the time factor should be recognized. Students vary considerably in the extent of their experiences. To insure multiple experiences, some schools begin the program as early as the first year. By means of an inventory the extent of incoming students' experiences is determined. Where deficiencies exist, these may be corrected before the formal training begins. Through guidance procedures students are led to overcome their specific limitations and to enrich their preparation. This preteacher-education program may be set up as a unit regardless of college year and may be a prerequisite for the professional program.

What complicates the program is the fact that students often do not decide on teacher education until some time after they enter college. In the liberal-arts program this decision is often postponed as late as the senior year. The closer the student is to graduation, the more difficult becomes the problem of adjustment. The transfer student also complicates the problem because of the limited time he has to develop the necessary preinduction experience. The program design must take into account the variations in experience and the time in which the student is to make the transition.

Integration with academic program. College academic courses can make a significant contribution to the teacher-education program. Yet so often a student's college work lacks integration with his professional purpose. The college instructor is often more concerned about the student's becoming proficient in subject-matter than about his becoming an able teacher. It is highly desirable that the academic instructor be made aware of and that he contribute to the teacher-education program. College

courses may often provide much-needed experience; sociology, psychology, physical education (playground experience), and other courses may extend beyond the confines of the college class and bring into focus community living. The development of the student teacher toward his professional goal should be regarded as essential by all members of the faculty.

Competence. All details of the student-teaching program should seek to develop competence in students. If this competence is to include participation in community service, a close integration of the college with the schools and agencies in the community is essential. Where student teaching is done largely in a campus school, some additional supervised teaching in the schools of the community is important. The amount and type of this experience depend on the nature of the community and the opportunities existing there. Even the small community is not necessarily a handicap. Excellent programs with wide participation in school and community have been developed in small towns where the resources were fully explored.

The first contact with the schools of the community may be exploratory observation, especially during preinduction to the professional program. After observation, the student may begin participation in community activities as well as in regular classroom procedures. This service is incidental, and the nature and extent of the participation will depend on the needs of the individual. This contact with schools and community agencies requires guidance on the part of the supervisor of student teaching and the understanding and cooperation of the agencies involved. In the total field-laboratory program at no time should the college attempt to dictate to the community agencies, but rather there should be a cooperative, joint program. The emphasis of the student should be on his development as a teacher and a desire for competence in his chosen field.

Actual classroom experiences of student teaching should provide ample opportunity for the participant to assume an increasing share in classroom responsibilities as the student progresses. From observation he goes to participation, and from participation in various activities to teaching. If a student has not matured sufficiently to assume his responsibility as a teacher, he may be required to gain additional experience in

the phases of the work which show a lack of competence.

There appears to be a trend toward concluding the formal part of student teaching before the end of the senior year to allow for post-teaching conferences. This provision affords additional opportunity for those in charge of student teaching to discuss with each individual the experiences gained and those which need strengthening. This provision of a capstone experience

for the program is becoming increasingly significant as a guide to future work.

In the development of field-laboratory experience, it is imperative that a school continuously evaluate its program. A follow-up of the graduates for several years may uncover areas of weaknesses in the program and suggest changes. Further improvement may come from experiments in school-community relations, as they affect student teaching, better understanding of the purposes, and a better over-all design.

REPORT OF GROUP 35 Newer Teaching Aids and Materials¹

JAMES F. WHELAN

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NEW audio-visual teaching materials were discussed and demonstrated in the analyst's address. This address is published in a companion volume of this general report. In connection with this address, a program for the improvement of reading for college students was discussed. This included the use of the tachistoscope, reading films, reading rewrites, the ophthalmograph, and other materials. In the discussion it was noted that major emphasis was placed on speed, not comprehension.

Attention was called to some materials on the improvement of spelling with configuration by means of the tachistoscope, and to the fact that there is very little audio-visual material on the improvement of vocabulary. Reference was made to a large number of scientific studies which indicate greater rapidity in learning as well as increased retention and understandings, improved attitudes, and a wider variety of interests following the use of audio-visual materials. To supplement these studies it was recommended that great emphasis be placed on the value of the subjective judgment of the instructor and the students where audio-visual materials have been used.

If these materials are as beneficial at the college level as we say they are, why is

it necessary to stimulate their use? A recent study indicated the following obstacles to the use of audio-visual materials reported by college administrators: lack of funds, lack of building space, lack of trained personnel, faculty apathy, and faculty opposition. To these were added: apathy on the part of administrators and lack of interest in the improvement of instruction.

One important problem encountered was the education of the faculty to the use of audio-visual materials. In-service courses have been used to teach the use of these materials. Fellowships are available for summer study in the use of audio-visual materials. Effective workshops have been organized during the two weeks previous to the opening of the school year. Another effective means is the use of departmental committees on audio-visual materials. The committees study the specific problems of the department and work out their problems in connection with the director of the audio-visual materials. Contact with various departments at luncheon meetings by the director is helpful. A faculty handbook that is kept alive and up to date is very helpful.

Great emphasis was placed on a central organization under competent direction, immediately responsible to the administration. This eliminates departmental duplication, makes all materials readily available to all departments, and makes possible a production group available to all.

On the use of audio-visual materials for

¹ Based on the findings of Group 35 of the Conference. Analyst was Robert de Kieffer, Stephens College; chairman was Sherman A. Willson, Wayne University; consultant was Paul N. Zimmerer, Roosevelt College.

instruction, there was discussion of the audiograph for shorthand dictation, the recording of a class period to enable a teacher to evaluate his own instruction, student-hearing recordings of his own reading and speaking for improvement of the communication skills, the use of the listening room, and the recording of student teaching.

While the group was one of widely diversified interests, and there was much candid discussion of the value of audio-visual materials for improving instruction at the college-and-university level, there was complete agreement on basic issues. The general interest of the group was centered around certain guiding principles in the use of audio-visual materials. These had direct or indirect bearing on the discussion of the matters recorded in this report. To understand the tone of the discussions these principles are gathered together here in summary form:

1. A definition frequently used is: Audio-visual materials include any material used in a teaching situation to improve the quality of the teaching.

2. The use of audio-visual materials does not supplant good teaching. Its purpose is to supplement the work of teaching, to make the work of teaching more effective. It is not contemplated that the use of these materials will do away with the work of the classroom teacher.

3. In any program of audio-visual materials that may be planned, the man is more important than the equipment. The first step, therefore, is to select the individual who is competent to organize and to carry out the program. His efforts will result in the procurement of the proper equipment. Likewise, much equipment with no direction or incompetent direction is ineffective. It becomes a serious obstacle to the inauguration of a worth-while organization for the use of these materials.

4. The next step in the development of an audio-visual program is to allow the individual selected to utilize all available materials and, whenever possible within the limits of the budget, to supply the needs of the faculty. This opportunity will produce such worth-while results that it will become an effective agency within the

school for the improvement of the quality of the instruction.

5. It is recognized that there is no area where there is an adequate supply of audio-visual materials. In the area of higher education the need is greatest. It is recommended that additional studies be made of the production and utilization of materials at the college level.

6. Whenever it is most efficient, a cheaper material should be used. Where economy and efficiency are not sacrificed, real experience is to be preferred to the indirect.

7. Since the purpose of teaching aids is to improve the quality of the instruction, the result of the use of the aid may not always be completely apparent to the teacher; in the evaluation of an aid, the judgment of the interested students is often superior to that of the instructor.

8. The use of the term "audio-visual materials" too frequently connotes a limitation to motion pictures and slides. It is highly recommended that other audio-visual materials be used.

9. It is to be noted that "gadgeteers" who appear to be "equipment happy" serve no purpose in the use of audio-visual materials for the improvement of instruction. Centralization and control of equipment lead to complete sharing of use.

10. The neglected use of the blackboard still remains a challenge to the teacher.

11. It is generally agreed that elementary- and secondary-school teaching are more effective than teaching at the college level. This is due primarily to training in teaching techniques which include the use of audio-visual materials at the elementary and secondary levels. One good reason is the poor quality of the materials available. Also, the college instructor frequently thinks in terms of the very inferior materials of several decades ago. In some colleges there is also the hardship of procuring materials where there is no central organization to provide for the distribution of these. (Robert de Kieffer, Stephens College, Columbia, Missouri, and Sherman A. Willson, Wayne University, Detroit, Michigan, are willing to reply to written requests for materials available on audio-visual materials.)

REPORT OF GROUP 36

Appraising and Rewarding Teaching Effectiveness¹

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South Dakota State College

IT is generally accepted among college-and-university administrators that at some point, somehow, and by someone the work of the staff must be evaluated. The evaluative process certainly comes into play at the point where the staff member is selected and usually occurs at the several stages of promotion, at the point where permanent tenure comes into the picture, and finally at the point of retirement. The hypothesis that better teaching might result in a situation in which external evaluation is not exercised presents intriguing possibilities but is discarded as inimical to the American way of life.

If we accept the principle that evaluation is inevitable we are confronted with such questions as (1) what criteria are to be used in judging teaching effectiveness, (2) how can the most valid judgments be obtained, (3) who is to do the appraising, and (4) what responsibility has the administration for the in-service training and for the proper assignment (or reassignment) of staff members?

In any system of evaluation it is highly important that staff members have a part in determining the criteria on which their effectiveness is to be judged and the procedures through which the program is to be implemented. Furthermore, the evaluative process should have as a correlative objective the improvement of instruction (and other services), for without such orientation the program cannot hope to become much more than a negative administrative device. Another criterion of a good system for evaluation is the degree to which it provides for and encourages continuing self-evaluation on the part of the staff member.

Furthermore, since one of the tenets of democracy requires that the uniqueness of the human personality be recognized, any evaluative system which attempts to force

persons into uniform molds is fundamentally undemocratic.

Criteria of teaching effectiveness. Since we are presuming to evaluate teaching, we must assume that certain criteria of good teaching can be identified. It should be recognized, however, that the over-all effectiveness of a teacher cannot be estimated from a purely "quantitative" summation of ratings on the several criteria but that a profile or pattern of ratings must be employed. It is conceivable that a teacher who rates high in all criteria but one may be a very unsatisfactory teacher, while one who ranks low on most criteria may do very satisfactory work in a given situation because of one strong trait.

Among the more significant criteria of teaching effectiveness which can be identified reasonably well and can be somewhat objectively measured are the following: (1) ability to motivate students; (2) the degree to which the objectives of the course are met; (3) ability and willingness to adapt methods of instruction to the nature of the subject-matter, objectives of the course, and the group to be taught; (4) skill in the use of testing and evaluative devices both for the purpose of facilitating instruction and for estimating the achievement of the students.

Perhaps the essence of good teaching can be found in the ability to motivate students. Without active participation on the part of the student, and unless the student becomes interested in his own self-education, anything the teacher does can have little more than a superficial and transitory effect. This point of view is epitomized in the dictum—"that teacher is most effective who makes himself dispensable to the student at the earliest possible moment."

How valid judgments of teaching effectiveness obtained? There appears to be a growing realization that the judgment of the student provides significant evidence for the evaluation of teaching effectiveness. While some college educators object to the use of student-teacher ratings as a matter of principle, a number of institutions which

¹ Based on the findings of Group 36 of the Conference. Analyst was O. H. Rechard, University of Wyoming; chairman was H. H. Remmers, Purdue University; consultant was The Reverend Edward J. Kammer, C. M., De Paul University.

have introduced the system, after careful study and with faculty approval, report satisfactory results. The contention that students are too immature to form valid judgments or are inclined to be unfair and vindictive in their ratings does not appear to be justified by the evidence presented in this Conference.

If ratings of teachers by students are to be used for administrative purposes, certain precautionary measures should be taken: (1) teachers should have an opportunity to discuss the ratings with the administrative officer before action is taken; (2) the ratings should be used as supplementary evidence and not as the sole basis for administrative action; (3) not only the mean or median rating, but also the range of ratings and comments should be used in judging the effectiveness of teaching.

Traditionally college teachers have been suspicious of classroom visitation by administrative officers as a means of evaluating teaching effectiveness. In a few institutions, however, classroom visitation seems to have been an effective device for improving instruction and for administrative purposes. In the discussion group the opinion was expressed that unless classroom visitation could be made to serve as a *positive* device for *improving* instruction it should not be used. Conferences between the teacher and administrator, following the visitation, are implied.

Departmental meetings in which course objectives, examination procedures, and other aspects of instruction are considered, provide opportunities for estimating the teaching ability of teachers. Judgment is passed on the basis of contributions the staff member makes to the discussion.

Student achievement on standardized and teacher-made tests can provide evidence of teaching effectiveness. If used at all, however, such test results must be interpreted with extreme caution since it is possible that observed differences are due to a combination of factors of which teaching ability is only one.

The primary objective of any program for the evaluation of teaching effectiveness should be the improvement of instruction. If this premise is accepted, it follows that institutions have a responsibility for providing an in-service-training program and for the selective placement of staff members in accordance with individual competencies.

Finally, it is recommended that for staff members engaged in teaching primary consideration be given to the effectiveness of teaching in deciding promotions in rank and increments in salary, and that continued efforts be made to improve techniques for measuring teaching effectiveness.

REPORT OF GROUP 37

Improving the Selection, Education, and Professional Growth of College Teachers¹

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DISCRIMINATING undergraduate students, a courageous minority of teachers, and an increasing number of administrators are still dissatisfied with the quality of teaching in our colleges. The opinion prevails that one cause of this condition is the ineffectiveness of the graduate programs as preparation for college

teaching. An even more common cause is thought to be the failure of administrators themselves to put a premium on, good teaching that would create the conditions favorable to the improvement, evaluation, and reward of good teaching.

In some graduate schools and in various undergraduate colleges progress of a sort is being made in the selection, preparation, and subsequent development of college teachers. The study group undertook to evolve a body of action-proposals, procedures, techniques, and devices considered

¹ Based on the findings of Group 37 of the Conference. Analyst was Fred J. Kelly, United States Office of Education; chairman was Ruth E. Eckert, University of Minnesota; consultant was William E. Alderman, Miami University.

useful, desirable, and practicable in the selection, training, and in-service education of college teachers. They are set forth under four headings representing the special interests of the subgroups into which the larger group was divided for purposes of preliminary study and discussion.

Even though the interest of the group was centered on the development of teachers *after* they had entered service, it was recognized that the two most crucial steps in the process of improving the quality of teaching were recruitment and selection; only through such means can we insure the induction of suitable persons into the profession.

Recruitment. It is the responsibility of the undergraduate colleges to stimulate interest in teaching as a career. Numerous devices may be employed for this purpose. For example: (1) To identify teaching with the so-called "learned professions," career-planning and career conferences should include college teaching as a profession separate and distinct from public-school teaching; (2) teaching tryout experiences should be provided for senior students; (3) there should be fostered the participation of students in local discussions of instructional problems and even in conferences of professional-education organizations meeting under the auspices of the institution. The employment of these devices presupposes a faculty that is wholly committed to teaching as a profession and considers it to be on a level with other professions.

Selection. In the graduate school the problems of recruitment and selection merge since it is at this level that *choice* is or should be made by the prospective candidate and by the school; its primary function, however, is the systematic screening of applicants in terms of their probable fitness for college teaching. Various methods and devices have been employed for this purpose, such as (1) the use of objective tests of vocational interest and (2) the attempt to identify in the candidate those qualifications considered by the institution essential to success in college teaching: (a) manifest interest in teaching as a career, (b) personal and social maturity, (c) intellectual competence of a high order, (d) demonstrated ability to deal with groups of college-age.

Suggested techniques which an employer

may use in selecting new teachers may be: (1) the practice of giving greater weight to recommendations from individuals whose judgment he respects and whose integrity is well established, (2) scrutiny of the application for such discriminating factors as a relatively limited number of select references, (3) the specificity of the language used in the recommendation itself.

Local obstacles to selection. Chief among the factors hindering the development of a sound program of selection of prospective teachers are: (1) lack of budgetary provisions for the service, (2) discrimination based on religion, sex, or race, (3) institutional inbreeding. Undemocratic discriminatory practices should be outlawed because they result in loss of talent to the profession.

Faculty participation. As a matter of policy, there should be developed a democratic framework within which the faculty and the administration may function mutually in the selection of staff members. Such a policy should extend also to promotion and dismissal.

Graduate education of prospective teachers. How can graduate faculties broaden their concept of what their responsibilities really are in preparing college teachers? Can undergraduate colleges help in this regard? How can greater flexibility be achieved in the graduate program? Can the dissertation experience be reconceived to contribute more directly to the preparation of college teachers? How can internships be used to develop teaching competence?

Factors making for a broadened type of education for college teachers are: (1) reports to the faculty of the results of follow-up studies made of their graduates who have gone into teaching; (2) use of departmental and divisional seminars to discuss teaching problems; (3) organization of a university-wide committee of staff members interested in improving the preparation of teachers; (4) close cooperation between the undergraduate and graduate schools; provision of cooperative apprentice teaching experience for students doing graduate work either at the university concerned or elsewhere. An all-university program is needed to attain these objectives. Needed flexibility to improve the teaching in colleges points to de-emphasizing the possession of the traditional doctorate as a prerequisite for teaching (and promotion).

Instead, the emphasis should be placed upon the competency of the individual to teach, and preference should be given to applicants prepared in doctoral programs that are relevant to college teaching.

The dissertation experience can be made to contribute more directly to the preparation of college teachers by being concerned with *broad* problems related either to the practice or theory of education. Without any compromise with intellectual rigor or scholarly treatment, the creative, interpretive, or evaluative type of research should be recognized.

Foremost among the provisions for improving the preparation of college teachers is apprentice teaching. Some practices found useful are: (1) having assistants work for a period of time under the direct supervision of a competent faculty member before being given full responsibility for the work; (2) providing practice in informal work of the seminar type under the guidance of consultants; (3) selecting as teaching fellows those who have distinguished themselves in a course in apprentice college teaching.

Initiating the program of in-service improvement. Categorically stated, the basic aims and purposes which in-service programs should serve are: (1) to create a feeling of need for improvement and to assist in discovering and employing the means necessary to achieve this end; (2) to develop among members of the staff (including the administration) a cooperative attitude toward the exchange of teaching and other professional experiences; (3) to prevent otherwise inevitable stagnation and "dry rot" among faculty members.

Techniques found useful for identifying the needs of faculty members are: (1) the use of student resources through questionnaire on an informal discussion of teacher effectiveness; (2) providing a consultant service for new faculty members—a resourceful person skilled in solving the problems of beginning teaching.

For meeting and using the needs thus identified there are: (1) the general institute or periodic refresher program; (2) the interdepartment and intra-department teaching seminar, including group discussions and conferences.

Implementing the program. Assuming that the desire for improvement is strong in the faculty and that the administration is

eager to capitalize upon this motive, what should be the general character of the in-service program and how should it be implemented? Among the numerous devices, techniques, and procedures included in good in-service programs are: (1) a faculty institute at the beginning of the school year; (2) visits by heads of departments or by fellow teachers; (3) use of a consultant—at the invitation of members of the faculty; (4) careful examination of objectives; (5) use of tests constructed and scored by someone other than the instructor; (6) use of research to discover relative value of different techniques; (7) ratings by students and alumni for purposes of enlightenment and guidance only; (8) preparation and use of instructor's handbooks.

It should be constantly borne in mind that these devices are merely mechanisms employed by institutions aroused to the need for improved teaching. It is this spirit of self-study and self-improvement which gives vitality and significance to these devices.

The implications of membership. In a faculty of the sort we are describing, membership means what belonging to a team implies—participation. The faculty becomes an organic unit, functioning through its related members. To belong is to want to improve. Thus it would be expected that all members of the staff would participate in some phase of the program.

Mutual responsibilities of administration and staff. There are several things which the administration may do to keep the program at a high level of effectiveness. It must:

1. Provide the various material aids to and conditions of growth by (a) bringing in of specialists to assist in study of institutional problems; (b) affording funds for attendance and participation in professional meetings; (c) releasing from normal teaching loads for purposes of research those staff members of demonstrated ability in this area of service; (d) providing adequate plans for leaves of absence for purpose of professional growth; (e) supplying adequate secretarial help to relieve teachers of burdensome clerical and semiskilled activities;

2. Reward teachers for superior instructional service by (a) assigning extra weight to superior classroom teaching as a factor in advancement in rank or salary;

(b) according public recognition to specific instances of excellent teaching performance, through citations, announcements in faculty meetings, or by publication through campus or institutional facilities;

3. Provide for actual experimentation and research to determine what constitutes good teaching;

4. Establish a clearinghouse for the collection and dissemination of new ideas and techniques between departments;

5. Provide adequate teaching aids, such as audio-visual and library materials.

The faculty, it is assumed, would seize the opportunity to utilize the resources for teaching and study thus made available.

Evaluation of the program itself. Some evidence which the faculty will need to appraise the functioning of the program may be secured by: (1) making an initial status study and comparing results later

with the results of a similar study so as to measure changes (e.g., distribution of teacher's grades before and after discussion and study; trend of funds in budget for promoting professional growth; achievement of successive senior classes as measured by Graduate Record Examination; opinionnaire studies of teacher and student satisfactions); (2) recording significant curricular innovations; (3) making an inventory of all factors or activities which show increase in administrative concern (e.g., tangible rewards for teaching, selection of applicants broadly prepared for college teaching, leave of absence to study in-service programs in other institutions); (4) observing the extent to which the significant, unique features of the program are commended (or not) in critical reviews of practice by persons of competence in the field.

SUMMARY

Some Major Highlights of Conference Findings¹

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University of Michigan

IT is apparent from the reports and discussions of this Conference that higher education, at last, is getting a sense of direction for its efforts in the national emergency. The confusion is clearing. The significant role of the colleges and universities is receiving national recognition. The job ahead is a challenging one for these institutions.

Any member of the Department of Higher Education always stands in awe of the intuitive sense that guides the efforts of Ralph McDonald in planning these conferences. The timing of this one was so perfect that one wonders whether his persuasive powers were used in having the executive order of the President announced as the curtain of the Conference was being lifted, just as we know they were, in a substantial way, responsible for the newly announced policy of the government. Be that as it may, it has been good to see M. H. Trytten in the flesh and to hear about the much-discussed Trytten plan

direct from the "horse's mouth." It has been equally good to hear, even before they have been announced officially, the plans for civilian-defense-training programs in which the schools and colleges are to have so large a part. Many other things about the Conference have had a salutary effect. It was especially refreshing to see Claude Hawley document the contributions of the social sciences during the last war. George Boas, speaking at the opening session, clearly earned the "Oscar" award of the Conference for those punch lines of his convincing and charming paper about the humanities:

Pure science is tolerated because it is suspected that it may contain implications useful for warfare. Psychology and economics are permitted because it is hoped that the former may teach us how to beguile the enemy successfully into treason or cowardice, the latter because it may teach us how to capture or destroy the materials vital to the enemy's defense. But the historian, the student of language and literature, and especially that human gadfly the philosopher, are not encouraged. They are not essential to defense. They are merely essential to civilization.

¹ Presented before the third General Session of the sixth annual National Conference on Higher Education, Chicago, April 4, 1951.

The item of greatest impact ensuing from the discussions here is undoubtedly the feeling that the colleges and universities, in all good conscience, may continue to function at near capacity. The issue is not as is sometimes assumed whether all young men in a democracy should, each in turn, accept the personal risks of the firing line. It is rather whether the nation can afford to make less than the optimum use of its potential manpower—even if doing so dictates the deferment of some of them for further education. Educators have been somewhat divided on this question; the American public is still divided. The outlines of a sound national policy described in several statements in this Conference are, however, becoming clear: Lacking superiority in numbers of men and in natural resources, this country must depend upon having superior men and machines. The effectiveness of our defense and of American industry behind that defense is dependent upon having a steady flow of qualified specialists—specialists in all fields. It is vitally important that we keep our industrial and military machines operating effectively and efficiently not just for the present but for a long period of time. This is the reason why it is so essential to the national welfare to select young men and women, democratically, on the basis of ability, for deferment while they are being educated. They are not escaping military service; they are merely postponing it during such time as they are rendering other service of even greater importance to the nation.

Thus the conscience of educators can be free of doubt, as for many of them it has been. The new policy is not dictated by the selfish interest of college boys or the budgetary interest of the institutions; it is for the good of the nation.

This policy, which has been discussed so long and reasoned so fully by the educators, however, is still in the embryonic stage of acceptance by American public opinion. As pointed out by at least two of the discussion groups, political repercussions will undoubtedly follow in the wake of the announcement of the policy. The colleges, therefore, face a dilemma. The public must be fully acquainted with the reasons for the new policy. The people must think through for themselves the arguments in support of the program, and they need to see that the integrity of the democratic method in applying selective service is being preserved. Yet

if an individual college defends the program, it will appear to be arguing from a position of vested interest. Ways must be found, therefore, through cooperative effort and through other media and agencies to carry to a desirable conclusion this phase of the great debate.

Thus we, at the Conference, have found agreement that higher education has a contribution to make that is indispensable to the nation's defense and to the work of the United Nations in attempting to stop aggression in the world. The training of scientific personnel is perhaps the greatest single responsibility. Allied with that task is the conduct of basic research and applied research, but it is the peculiar province and skill of the university to do basic research. Personnel of many other types need also to be educated—psychologists, statisticians, and language interpreters; nurses, technicians, and technologists; officer candidates in supplementation of those prepared at the military academies; teachers who will continue to prepare the minds of the oncoming youth with a clear understanding of what it is that they may be called on at some time—remote let us hope—to defend; defense specialists such as those for work in decontamination, first aid, and the sustaining of civilian morale—to say nothing of the personnel needed for thousands of other essential occupations and professions. Parenthetically, a plea is made to find the means of making much more reliable estimates of the needs for personnel in each of the several categories. In the midst of this production job, we dare not forget the individualists and nonconformists, so aptly described by Mr. Boas; among them will be found catalysts who generate the energies for self-criticism, emit the sparks that light the pathways, and hatch the ideas for greater human achievement.

Another respect in which our minds are becoming clarified is this: For the last several months, the concern of the colleges has seemed to be primarily with their own preservation. Now we are beginning to see that our real concern should be with the preservation of the values for which these institutions should stand. Probably the impetus for this discussion lies not so much in the greater reassurance we now have about the contributions that higher education can make to the emergency, but rather in the backwash of the recent Congressional investigations, into crime, gam-

bling, and mink coats, the discovery of the alarming corruption of college athletes and the trial and conviction of the atomic workers who betrayed their country.

As the *New York Times* pointedly remarked, the atomic traitors had been educated in colleges and at public expense. Probably Costello and his gang have never seen the inside of an ivy-covered hall, but the same can hardly be said of the basketball players. In any event, the breakdown of moral values so evident through these revelations is not only shocking to our smug self-satisfaction; it is a matter of concern for the nation's internal security and stability. How can we be sure that Western civilization is not, after all, in a stage of deterioration if we cannot rely upon our core of ethical concepts? How can we plead successfully for the life of our colleges if they neglect the time-honored function of nourishing civilization through the definition of sound values?

The burden of this concern upon the members of the Conference was evident in many of the discussion groups. The gist of the thinking of Group 6 can be seen through their analysis of the problem in the following words: "Where religion may be taught, the spiritual values that should be part of the student's education are frequently not 'caught.' Where no positive religious courses are taught, the young student, entering with religious commitments not based on reflection is often subjected to instructors who reflect much without ever arriving at a commitment. The result is a young person without 'reflective commitments,' frustrated and without moorings . . ." Group 23 cautioned us that "we must revive an appreciation of certain values which may be defined as spiritual and nonmaterial, which principles, together with increasing emphasis on responsibility, constitute an important development which must be encouraged if our Western civilization is to thrive." A college, then, should provide for growth in moral understanding and stamina.

Among several solutions suggested was the one that the purposes of the colleges need clarification, and especially rededication. The catalogs of the colleges frequently state worthy purposes, but those purposes do not receive application through the faculties. This question of the objectives of education received consideration in several groups, such as public relations,

curriculum planning, and general education, as well as Group 6. So more about it later.

Still another agreement of the Conference has been that the world conflict is only in part a military one; efforts in addition to the military one will be needed if democracy is to become the accepted mode of life and intercourse among the peoples and the nations of the world. The conflict in reality is between two civilizations. There is near complete agreement regarding the necessity of building up our armed forces and the colleges stand ready to share in this job, but there is further consensus that the fight must be waged on many fronts—the ideological, the ethical, the social, the educational.

At issue are such things as the maintenance of a moral order which can be the basis of mutual confidence and respect, rather than one of suspicion and distrust, the assurance of continued intellectual freedom and integrity, the preservation of opportunity for individual variation, and the improvement of social organization to permit individual freedom within the sphere of group undertakings. Opposed are the concepts of the Communists concerning the superiority of the state, the subordination of the individual, a code of ethics under which the ends justify the means, and thought-control which requires that economists, musicians, and biologists shape their published thoughts and findings so that they will square with the political dogma and the shifty line of the Communist Party.

It seems clear that a solution to the world conflict requires that America and the West demonstrate the inherent worth of the democratic way, that we show the creativeness that occurs when there is freedom of investigation and of communication, that we prove the soundness of our contention that moral distinctions are vital to healthy human relations, and that intellectual integrity not only is essential to living the good life but pays dividends in trade and cultural exchanges as well.

Military security and defense production are, therefore, means to forestall further aggression and to preserve the *status quo*. They are the defense screen behind which this nation and its friends can gird themselves for the larger and longer-run phase of the conflict. They are a barter with time, during which the institutions of the

democratic countries may develop the program for the further improvement and implementation of democracy. Among these institutions, the colleges and universities have a responsibility, near the gravest of them all, to assure that in the long run the people of the world will follow a sound course of direction and learn to live together in mutual confidence with the best good of all at heart. These objectives pose before higher education a task that is infinitely more complex and difficult than any that was confronted in earlier crises.

In the light of the above highlights of the Conference, it is easy to see why so many of the groups discussed the objectives of higher education. A *laissez-faire* plan of education is not sufficient for today. There are issues in the world that need to be resolved, and education is a primary means. There are values to refine and to implement, and these are in part the responsibility of education. Students preparing to live in the world today need intelligent guidance and preparation both for participation and for potential leadership.

The members of Group 21 had as their task an analysis of the revisions needed in the curriculum in the light of changing world conditions. They recommend that the colleges carry on continuous evaluations of their curricula. For example, to meet the changing needs of the present, specific modifications might include some of the following:

Providing instruction in other cultures, particularly those of the Soviet Union and the Asiatic peoples, and in comparative political theory; utilizing more contemporary material in courses; improving instruction in foreign languages and increasing the number of languages taught; broadening the exchange of students and instructors; teaching directly to eliminate attitudes and prejudices that lead to discriminatory practices; since education is a continuing process, providing adult-education opportunities.

They also protest against any need during the period of semimobilization to reduce such standards as those for graduation and for the admission of students.

The statement of Group 23 concerning the foundations of democracy will stimulate the thinking of those faculties who desire to do as Group 21 recommends: evaluate their curricula for their contributions to an understanding and appreciation of democ-

racy. Incidentally, this report also makes specific recommendations of methods through which to secure democracy in the classroom and in college administration.

The group that attempted to define the objectives of general education experienced the usual difficulty of finding a consensus of views. They agreed, "that all statements of purpose include a concern for both 'social' and 'individual' goods and that these two are not regarded as mutually exclusive ends," and "that general education aims at the modification of behavior when behavior is broadly conceived to include intellectual, emotive, attitudinal, and physical activity." The disagreements became lost in semantic difficulties and in the inability in so brief a discussion to reconcile the views of the more traditional liberal-arts advocates, who contend that their purposes include general education, and those of the general-education enthusiasts.

The feeling of the public-relations group was that too often we expect public-relations officers of our colleges to put out a fire of disapproval when we should have used the principles of good public relations in erecting a fireproof structure. Let us think of public relations as a continuing process and develop our organization and program accordingly. Such a program should not be limited to our individual colleges but expanded as well to include the various educational organizations. The confidence and support of the public must be earned by our constructive and responsible actions.

This statement is also relevant to the evidence submitted by the group which dealt with the financing of public higher education, that such financial support is being curtailed. The financial problem of publicly supported higher education demands a continuing program of interpretation of the accomplishments and benefits resulting from the expenditures of public funds. Increased support can come only through more widespread understanding.

Let me now give you some one-paragraph comments concerning several conclusions reached on each of a number of discrete topics.

Enrollment of students. In his address before the Conference, Kenneth Little, Registrar and Director of Student-Personnel Services, University of Wisconsin, pre-

dicted the enrollments of men students in college this next fall will decline not more than ten to 15 per cent, the percentage varying by institutions depending upon local conditions, and upon such factors as the presence of an R.O.T.C. program. Enrollments may be more adversely affected a year later than they will be in 1951.

Group 8 estimated a decline of about 12 per cent for the coming fall. They also gave estimates for each of the two succeeding years showing further reductions for each year. By 1953 they predict that the enrollment will be down 20 per cent, to 1,817,000 as compared with 2,297,000 in 1950, this total being for full-time and part-time students. The group lists a number of factors that were taken into account in making these estimates.

Barriers to higher education. The group that discussed barriers to higher education expressed the opinion that there has been improvement in the opportunities for Negroes in higher education within the past year or two. On the other hand, they note little improvement in overcoming barriers on grounds of religion or nationality. Personally, I think that progress has been made in this respect, too. A special plea was made to public institutions of higher learning to refrain from increasing tuitions further. The cost of education is today the greatest of all barriers to students, affecting seriously the college attendance of boys and girls from low-income families. The group considers the reduction of barriers to be a need of top priority not only for the sake of making our practices in the United States consistent with our democratic principles, but also to enable the nation to make the best use of the abilities of its youth.

Several groups noted the desirability of providing federal aid for those students who meet the qualifications for deferment under selective service in order to attend college but who lack the funds with which to go to college. The essence of the deferment plan is, of course, that the students of highest ability will be educated. If many of these students are prevented from attending college for reason of lack of finances, the democratic principle involved will be undermined, and the main objective in part defeated. The group on barriers reports a difference of opinion within the group as to whether the federal aid should consist of loans to the students or of scholarships.

Acceleration. It is the belief of several groups, based partly upon positions taken by the government and the armed services, that program acceleration at this time is neither necessary nor desirable. Probably some members of the Conference may disagree with this conclusion. The group on acceleration, however, stated that this may be a good time for institutions to reevaluate the time spent by students on various phases of the program. They also suggested various ways in which a college could so plan its program as to enable individuals to make better use of their time, especially permitting students of high ability to avoid time losses.

Military programs. The Conference understands that with the exception of 62 new R.O.T.C. programs the military services do not contemplate special military programs in the colleges and universities of the type established during the last war. There is agreement, however, upon the desirability of making adjustments within the program to enable individuals to take advantage of such military training as may be offered. One suggestion was that institutions accessible to camps should make special effort to serve the needs of young men in these camps. It is assumed that many of them would take advantage of offerings, if available within the time schedules of the men.

Universal military training. Recognizing that the American public now considers that universal military training may be necessary, the group on this subject recommended strongly that Congress be petitioned to establish a terminal date for such a program. This would have the effect of requiring that the program be reviewed at intervals so that Congress might decide whether or not to renew it. Universal military training, also, should be placed under civilian control.

Governmental-contract research. While noting the contributions that institutions of higher education can make through contracts for research, it was recommended that the over-all program for research be so organized as to enable smaller institutions to participate. The disadvantages to these institutions in the last war because of the concentration of research in large institutions has been apparent. Such a policy results in draining able faculty members, especially in the science areas, away from the small colleges. Yet the future

scientists of America may come from the undergraduate programs of the smaller colleges as readily as from the large ones. An important phase of any research program is, of course, the incidental training of scientific personnel.

Community services. The potentialities for public service through the community-college type of program were emphasized. In this critical period of the national welfare there may be unusual opportunities for an educational institution to be of service to its local community. The offering of training programs relating to civilian defense, for example, provides an unusual opportunity to integrate the college with the community. The local institutions serving students near their homes can also assist materially in reducing the financial barriers to higher education. During these critical times there may be special need to provide educational courses and activities for adults. In any event, the demand for work in adult education appears to be steadily increasing.

The finances of colleges. Several of the reports deal with the financial problems confronting the colleges. Appropriations to public institutions for next year are being seriously reduced. The flow of income to private institutions is insufficient and the losses of tuition income through declining enrollments are serious. Coupled with these factors is the nationwide inflation which increases the costs of materials, supplies, and labor. Group reports include a number of suggested actions the colleges and universities can take, such as the following: study of tax programs, with a view toward their reformation; economies resulting from reevaluation of the college program; interinstitutional cooperation in the appeals for funds and in the exchange of services; cooperation in the regional support of specialized offerings and schools. One report noted that private colleges have a kinship with private enterprise, and in this relationship possess a strong appeal for group support from business and industry.

Student government. The importance of student government in the educational program of today was highlighted in a number of reports. Members of the Conference appear to be especially concerned to provide opportunities for students to learn democratic skills and habits. Student government, or the community government of some campuses, can be an educational

laboratory through which students may gain educational experiences relevant to their future work as civic participants and leaders and as citizens. One panel noted that the moral and spiritual climate of a college can be materially improved through developing a sense of responsibility for honorable living.

Women students. The idea that this is a good time to make more adequate provision for women students in higher education was suggested in several instances. The critical manpower shortage may be the occasion to counsel women students to enter many emergency-training programs as well as to encourage them to prepare for the professions for which college education is essential. Such action would be consistent with the fact that 70 per cent of the women in college today express interest in occupational or career training.

The supply and education of teachers. It is natural that any conference of the National Education Association should give extended consideration to the subject of the education of teachers and to the means of assuring a sufficient supply of well-qualified teachers. This Conference followed suit. A critical shortage of public-school teachers exists. Grave concern is expressed lest the ranks of the teachers be still further depleted because of the losses of men teachers to the military services, and of men and women to industry. The rising cost of living makes the low salaries, traditional with the teaching profession, even more disadvantageous than they have been. The obvious remedy is to improve the salary schedule, and in some places this has been done. But the whole subject requires a great deal of additional public sympathy, understanding, and action. Various suggestions appear in the reports of the several sections for improving the effectiveness of teacher education.

As I draw near the conclusion of this report I want to center more squarely upon the individual who is a student at or prospective student for college.

Several groups dealt with counseling by the faculty and with the problems of the student. Included in their reports are suggestions for the organization and administration of counseling programs, for specific techniques to be used in varying situations, and for securing a larger degree of interest on the part of the faculty. The educational

values of extra-class activities were analyzed. The relationship of counseling with the curriculum was emphasized. The need to consider the student as a "whole man" was noted. These statements are the products of group thinking, arising from a rich background of individual experiences in student counseling. One thread of thought that runs through several of the reports deserves special mention. It is recommended that faculty members develop a genuinely sympathetic attitude toward and understanding of students of differing talents and abilities. This is in part relevant to the new testing-and-selection-program for draft deferment. There are bound to be many heartaches and disappointments through failures to qualify. There may arise jealousies or envies within student groups. An individual who fails may, for the first time, be facing his own score on an aptitude test. The counseling problem may be a large and difficult one.

An analogous situation exists for faculties in institutions which do not have selective-admission programs. In these cases any student with a high-school diploma qualifies for admission. It is sometimes tragic for the individual to fail because he was admitted to the wrong school or to a curriculum out of harmony with his abilities and interests. Community colleges and public junior colleges have the special problem of counseling students of all ranges and types of abilities. A faculty member needs to be aware that as education beyond the high school becomes more democratized it also should become more diversified in order to meet in a positive way the needs of all students. From the social viewpoint, we cannot at this time afford to be too extravagant with the misuse of talents, whatever may be their type.

The essence of these two cases was well expressed by a sentence in the report of Group 2: "Students who fall below certain grade norms, either in academic pursuits or aptitude tests, must be assisted to a new sense of personal worth and usefulness." I would add that in a democracy it should be as respectable to earn a living by working with one's hands as to belong to the intellectual aristocracy. Indeed, the economic advantage is now frequently in favor of the former.

The reverse situation from that of the student with talents other than intellectual

is the student who ranks unusually high on the intellectual-aptitude scale. Mr. Trytten reminded us that 50 per cent of the Ph.D.'s in physics have been earned by students in the top five per cent of their college classes. It is important at any time to challenge these able students to the full. It is especially important to do so when our national policy puts a premium upon their education.

A second point that merits attention in counseling is the obvious one—that the complexities and uncertainties of the rapidly changing social scene are creating severe anxieties among students. It is a time for unusual alertness on the part of college faculties in sensing these individual problems and for acquiring skills in handling them.

Still one further observation—Group 1A admonishes us to preserve the right of the student to choose his own field of study and occupation.

Closely allied to the subject of student counseling is the report of the group on the education of foreign students here and abroad. It says, in part:

... American education must strive to make the other peoples of the world aware of the potency of ideas as a means of maintaining and sustaining world peace. Through the program of international education, cultural exchange, and technical assistance, we may expect to make essential progress toward world peace in the following ways:

1. Developing among the peoples of the world an attitude of world-mindedness especially along the lines of mutual interdependence and interest. Among the means available are these: an intensification in collegiate-language study; an intensive training program for language teachers; revitalizing courses in comparative education, political science, history, geography, sociology, anthropology; utilization of all resources on the college campus, especially the foreign students who are already present. Special emphasis should be placed on the orientation of the community in presenting a picture of American life to nationals from other countries.
2. Stimulating among students and professors the desire to pursue a program of international education abroad through the various exchange programs in operation.

. . . Effectiveness of foreign study here and abroad can be increased by: (1) developing among students representing us abroad an appreciation and understanding of other civilizations and cultures. Our representatives are warned not to make the mistake of trying to transplant American culture to countries that do not want it. . . .

In reflecting upon this report concerning the education of foreign students, let us remember that education must now concern itself with the peoples of the world and not merely with our own students.

As a concluding note I shall draw upon

a theme that runs throughout the group agreements—the need for evaluation. Higher education is just now receiving a vote of confidence from the national government which we hope will be approved by the people of the country. It behooves these institutions, in turn, to scrutinize everything they do and every phase of their programs in the effort to effect economies, strengthen quality, and make adjustments to meet the needs of the times. Foremost in this process of evaluation, let me repeat, is the reconsideration and rededication of fundamental purposes.

APPENDIX

RESOLUTIONS ADOPTED BY THE SIXTH ANNUAL NATIONAL CONFERENCE ON HIGHER EDUCATION, CHICAGO, ILLINOIS, APRIL 4, 1951

Resolution I. WHEREAS, freedom of inquiry and discussion is an essential part of the American tradition, and

WHEREAS, academic freedom is essential to the proper functioning of the teaching profession,

BE IT RESOLVED: That this Conference once again affirm its conviction

1. that scholars, teachers, and students must be free to study and discuss all significant institutions and systems of thought, and
2. that the determination of the professional integrity and loyalty to truth of scholars and teachers is a function of the academic profession itself.

Resolution II. WHEREAS, a basic function of institutions of higher education is the motivation and direction of learning, and

WHEREAS, at present objective evidence of professional service and growth is available primarily in areas concerned with functions such as research and publication, participation in professional and community organizations, and contribution to the college department and the institution, and

WHEREAS, there is dissatisfaction with present criteria of teaching competence such as years of experience, advanced study and degrees, and judgments of administrative officers,

BE IT RESOLVED: That primary consideration be given to the effectiveness of teaching in deciding promotions in rank and responsibility, and increments in salary, and that continued efforts be made to improve such techniques for measuring effectiveness of teaching as observations of classroom teaching, student ratings of instructors, and actual achievement of students in courses.

Resolution III. WHEREAS, current national conditions have increased uncertainties and expanded the range of problems faced by all college students,

BE IT RESOLVED: That adequate counseling facilities for students be recognized as increasingly important.

Resolution IV. WHEREAS, the administration of intercollegiate athletic programs in some institutions has raised questions, in the minds of the public and faculty, as to the academic integrity and proper balance in the use of college resources as between athletics and the academic program,

BE IT RESOLVED: That college faculties, administrative officers, and boards of control be urged to review their intercollegiate athletic operations, and to take such steps as will

1. eliminate the commercialization of intercollegiate athletics
2. increase the confidence of faculties and citizens in the use of college resources and in the financial administration of athletic programs, and
3. preserve and strengthen the character-building opportunities in all parts of the athletic program.

Resolution V. WHEREAS, the values of our Western culture now stand gravely imperiled,

BE IT RESOLVED: That institutions of higher learning have the obligation

1. to preserve as an essential part of our cultural heritage the basic concepts of the humanities
2. to reaffirm the spiritual and moral aspects of education
3. to recognize heightened responsibility for the preservation of the essential values of the family and home
4. to increase awareness of the need for democratic citizenship, foster with renewed dedication the free exchange of ideas, and encourage opportunities for enlightened civic participation
5. to continue active support for development of international understanding.

Resolution VI. WHEREAS, progress has been made in many institutions of higher learning in making opportunities for higher education available to qualified persons without regard to race, color, creed, or national origin,

BE IT RESOLVED: That we commend these institutions for their forthright action and urge that such efforts be continued.

Resolution VII. WHEREAS, in the face of uncertain enrollment conditions some colleges and universities have reduced the size of teaching staffs, and

WHEREAS, in some instances the methods of terminating contracts and notifying staff members have not been in accord with good tenure practice,

BE IT RESOLVED: That this Conference deprecate any failure to give full consideration to the tenure status of faculty members, and commend the many college administrations and boards of trustees that have steadfastly adhered to tenure agreements even in the face of large financial deficits.

Resolution VIII. WHEREAS, it is in the national interest, in this period of disrupted enrollments, to enhance the training and experience of men and women faculty members, so that well-qualified persons for teaching and research will be available for the period of rapidly increasing enrollments which are forecast,

BE IT RESOLVED: That educational foundations and the federal and state governments be urged to provide graduate and research fellowships for selected faculty members whose preparation will most largely contribute to the strength of higher education.

Resolution IX. WHEREAS, the strength of higher-education institutions rests in the competence of their personnel, and

WHEREAS, there exists a growing disparity between the salaries for trained personnel in government, business, industry, and the armed forces, and those of college teachers, and

WHEREAS, the limited financial resources of colleges and universities have not permitted adequate increase in college salaries,

BE IT RESOLVED: That the American public be urged to supply the financial resources for higher-education institutions necessary to maintain adequate salaries and thus to secure and retain competent faculties.

Resolution X. WHEREAS, the responsibilities of women will undoubtedly widen during the coming period of semimobilization,

BE IT RESOLVED: That this Conference urge the active participation of women at all policy and planning levels, and the full use of their skills and talents in the interests of national security.

Resolution XI. WHEREAS, health needs of the civilian population and military personnel are making increasing demands for the services of professionally and technically prepared nurses, and

WHEREAS, education for nursing is now predominantly outside higher education, with emphasis on apprenticeship training,

BE IT RESOLVED: That institutions of higher learning recognize their responsibility for establishing programs providing for the professional and technical education of nurses.

Resolution XII. WHEREAS, the Congress of the United States has, by law, recognized the important service that is expected of institutions of higher education by permitting the allocation of large segments of the manpower of the nation to such institutions for additional general education prior to induction into the military force, and

WHEREAS, such institutions have direct obligations for the military training of youth through R.O.T.C. and other military programs, and

WHEREAS, many such institutions are also heavily engaged in research and development programs for the armed forces,

BE IT RESOLVED: That representations be made to the appropriate federal agencies that institutions of higher education be designated by the federal-defense agencies as fully and equally eligible for all special priorities and allocations of critical materials.

Resolution XIII. WHEREAS, civil defense has become an urgent aspect of national security and is the assigned responsibility of state and local communities, with counsel of federal agencies,

BE IT RESOLVED: That the institutions of higher learning, acting individually and collectively, be urged to assume aggressive leadership in developing and implementing activities which integrate the resources of the institutions into civil-defense programs.

Resolution XIV. WHEREAS, commendable programs have been instituted by the armed services to provide educational opportunities at both the high-school and college levels through voluntary off-duty educational study under contractual agreements with high schools and institutions of higher learning, and

WHEREAS, there is need for wider recognition of college credit for such courses,

BE IT RESOLVED: That with due regard for the maintenance of acceptable standards, those high schools, higher institutions, state departments of education, accrediting agencies, and all other groups and agencies concerned be urged to cooperate with the armed services and with other institutions and agencies in carrying out these programs.

Resolution XV. WHEREAS, in the present period of semimobilization there is uncertainty as to the wisdom of adopting accelerated programs,

BE IT RESOLVED: (1) That colleges and universities be encouraged to make maximum use of such normal means of acceleration as will enable students to move toward their degrees as rapidly as they show ability to progress, and (2) that year-round calendars not be adopted without careful consideration of the educational issues involved.

Resolution XVI. WHEREAS, the colleges and universities of America have played a significant part in the spiritual, social, economic, and cultural advancement of our nation, and in the development of new knowledge through basic research, and

WHEREAS, they have long proven their worth in national defense: by supplying trained officers and men, by developing improved materials and equipment, and by contributing to the development of more effective weapons and techniques,

BE IT RESOLVED: (1) That this Conference, reasserting its faith in our nation, pledge whole-hearted cooperation with all defense agencies in rebuilding the national armed strength to meet any situation which may confront America; (2) that the personnel and facilities of institutions of higher learning be made available insofar as they may be needed, without neglecting their primary function as educational institutions dedicated to the preservation of the American way of life; (3) that the Conference support those programs of military preparedness which the security of the nation demands, and

BE IT RESOLVED: (1) That the Conference regard universal military training as a measure to be adopted only if it is vital to the security of the nation; (2) that the Conference approve the present Congressional proposal to separate the consideration of universal military training from the proposed modification of selective-service legislation; (3) that the Conference favor the naming of definite terminal dates for both the selective-service and military-training phases of manpower legislation in order that such legislation may be reexamined by Congress and extended if necessary.

Resolution XVII. WHEREAS, a sizable proportion of young people of high ability are unable to initiate and complete their formal education beyond high school because of inadequate financial resources, and

WHEREAS, this lack of opportunity is not in the best interest of our society, and

WHEREAS, federal policy on selective-service deferment for college students until completion of their formal training, being based on tests of ability, presupposes the equal opportunity of qualified students for educational advancement,

BE IT RESOLVED: (1) That this Conference favor, in principle, a program of national scholarship assistance to any highly competent young men and women of limited financial means, without restriction as to field of study or as to choice of an accredited institution of higher learning, and (2) that the Conference commend the action of public agencies, such as states and municipalities, which have already initiated scholarship programs, and commend individuals, organizations, and agencies which have created scholarship programs.

Resolution XVIII. WHEREAS, higher education is inextricably bound up with elementary and secondary education, and

WHEREAS, many problems of higher education are of common concern to several organizations and groups that deal with higher education in one form or another,

BE IT RESOLVED: That the Conference recognize the importance of cooperative and unified efforts of all organizations in the field of education to strengthen and improve education, and that it encourage the Department of Higher Education of the National Education Association to continue its efforts to cooperate with all educational organizations, associations, and councils in ways which will tend to strengthen the usefulness of American education.

Resolution XIX. WHEREAS, the sixth annual National Conference on Higher Education has brought together scholars and teachers from all parts of the country and from many types of colleges and universities for collaborative thought on crucial problems of higher education today, and

WHEREAS, the success of the Conference is due in large measure to the wise planning and tireless labor of the officers, the Executive Committee, and the Planning Committee, and the experience, efficiency, and kindness of the Conference Director, the Assistant Director, and the staff of the Department,

BE IT RESOLVED: That the Conference express its heartfelt appreciation to President S. M. Brownell; to Earl Anderson, Chairman, and the members of the Planning Committee; to Secretary Ralph McDonald; to the Committees and staff members who assisted them in this splendid achievement; and to the management of the Congress Hotel for the cooperation and courtesies extended by all of its staff.

Resolution XX. WHEREAS, the college-student-deferment plan recently announced by Selective Service does not make clear that eligibility will be extended to students enrolled in semiprofessional and technical programs, and

WHEREAS, these semiprofessional and technical programs are of great importance to national security,

BE IT RESOLVED: That this Conference on Higher Education urge Selective Service authorities specifically to extend provisions for deferment of college students to any full-time student enrolled in any institution listed in the *Educational Directory, Part III, Higher Education*, issued annually by the United States Office of Education, Federal Security Agency.

General Resolutions Committee: Hoyt Trowbridge, *chairman*; F. D. Bluford, A. O. Davidson, T. L. Hungate, W. E. Lessenger, Melva Lind, J. Kenneth Little, Leland Medsker, W. Hugh Stickler, F. E. Weyer.

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